

SOCIAL STUDIES
for Children
in a Democracy

TO

Elizabeth Ann Michaelis
John Barry Michaelis
Susan Ann Michaelis

SECOND EDITION

SOCIAL STUDIES for Children in a Democracy

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FOREWORD

This new edition is addressed to those who wish to improve the social education of children. It is a synthesis of principles and procedures related to the planning and development of experiences in the social studies. Although major emphasis is placed on the social studies, the fact is recognized that social living is broader than any one area of the curriculum and that social learning takes place in many of the child's experiences both in and out of school. Hence, many of the ideas developed apply to areas other than the social studies. It is hoped that students in teacher education programs and school workers in service will find this volume helpful in developing increasingly higher levels of democratic citizenship as they work with boys and girls in America's schools.

The central theme of this edition is that democratic values and behavior must permeate every phase of the social studies program. Goals, planning, instructional procedures, materials of instruction and evaluation must all be consistent with this theme. It is only by keeping the democratic theme constantly in view that maximum development of democratic citizenship can be realized.

Other basic factors are also emphasized throughout the book. Child growth characteristics and guidelines for the improvement of learning are treated with special reference to implications for the social studies. Techniques of group work are stressed in several different sections along with practical examples of ways in which children can team together to solve problems of common concern. Evaluation as a continuous process is emphasized. Illustrative charts, checklists and other devices that can be used to appraise the child's learning appear throughout the text, not solely in the chapter on evaluation. Practical applications of basic principles are stressed in each chapter. For example, in Chapter 1 specific techniques are suggested for utilizing democratic values and for developing democratic behavior. In Chapter 4

in a discussion of conditions of learning, attention is given to procedures that can be used to develop attitudes and build concepts. In short, the author believes that a unitary treatment is more effective than a compartmentalized analysis in which abstract principles are kept apart from practical procedures.

This edition differs from the first one in several ways. New material has been incorporated on practical ways to develop democratic behavior, on child development, on the growth and improvement of attitudes, on learning in relation to the child's self-concept, on the improvement of group work, map reading and map making, and the preparation of test items. Each chapter has been up-dated and new references have been included. Many new pictures, charts, and other examples of outstanding practices have been added to illustrate applications of principles. Captions and questions that accompany pictures have been designed to stimulate thinking and discussion. Each chapter is concluded by a new section of questions and activities that call for application of ideas presented in the text, both individual and group activities are suggested. Although sample units and other concrete examples of outstanding practices have been included, every effort has been made to avoid rule-of-thumb suggestions and the bag-of-tricks approach. The guiding principle has been to present ideas that will help to develop self-confidence and creativity on the part of teachers.

First consideration in this edition is given to the unique functions of the social studies with emphasis upon purposes, democratic values, and democratic behavior. Next come principles and patterns of organization, developmental characteristics of children, principles for the improvement of learning in the social studies, and the planning of unitary learning experiences. Then follows a discussion of group processes that are helpful in developing experiences with children. Activities and materials are next considered, with emphasis on guidelines for their selection and utilization. The two final chapters deal with evaluation of learning in the social studies and appraisal of the social studies program. Special attention is called to the Appendixes in which two sample units of work are included.

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JOHN U MICHAELIS

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SOCIAL STUDIES

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

The schools of America are dedicated to the preservation and extension of democratic ideals and to the development of the highest type of democratic citizenship *on the part of each child*. The discharge of this responsibility requires an educational program that will develop each child's potentialities to the fullest and at the same time bring growth in the competencies essential to democratic living. The major emphasis being given to citizenship education at the present time is concrete evidence of the importance accorded this responsibility by American educators.¹

Every opportunity should be utilized to meet this challenge. Each area of the curriculum, experiences in school and on the play ground, activities before and after school, and school-community enterprises should make contributions to the achievement of this goal. Of crucial importance are the social studies, which in many schools serve as the core for developing the social learnings needed in democratic living. Yet the social studies cannot do the job alone. A balanced curriculum must be planned for children and with children, and each area of the curriculum must be pointed toward the development of citizenship. The social studies, however, because of the experiences, content, and materials they encompass, have a unique role to play.

Major changes that have occurred in American society during recent decades accentuate the need for improved social education. Science and technology have created new problems and new opportunities. From a rural handicraft culture, America has moved to a highly centralized urban industrial culture. The growth of industries has brought about shifts in population, changes in family life, and changes

¹ For example see American Association of School Administrators, *Education for American Citizenship*, Washington D.C., National Education Association, 1934.

in daily associations with others Face to face relationships have been supplanted by person to group and group to group relationships as people endeavor to solve problems through unions, associations, and other groups Communication with people in distant places can be carried on with undreamed of speed and facility Developing networks of transportation make possible the measurement of travel time in hours instead of days and weeks Advances in science, medicine, and industry hold great promise for people everywhere At the same time we are confronted with such problems as strengthening democracy throughout the world, preserving peace, conserving resources, adapting to increasing interdependence improving community living and family life, developing international understanding, improving inter-group relationships inculcating moral and spiritual values, and utilizing science for the good of all mankind

The characteristics and problems of our society call for a program of education that is rooted deep in the American way of life No longer can instruction turn away from life today and give exclusive consideration to days gone by No longer can social lag be talked about in an ivory tower and ignored in our schools Children must be guided to develop the competencies needed to meet problems as they arise, to become at home in the world in which they find themselves A program of well designed experiences must be provided, such vital learning cannot be left to chance This is why the social studies must be given systematic attention in curriculum planning today

In order to make a maximum contribution to social learning, the social studies must be clearly defined and specific goals must be identified Basic democratic values must be considered and practical implications for their use must be derived Specific examples of democratic behavior need to be examined with special reference to ways in which they can be made part of the social studies With the foregoing in mind the social studies can be organized and developed on solid foundations

DEFINITION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The social studies are concerned with people and their interaction with their social and physical environment, they deal with human relationships In the social studies attention is given to ways of living and working together use of the environment to meet basic human needs customs institutions values, and life situations—the cultural heritage and its dynamic on going characteristics The social studies

in the elementary school embrace material related to human relationships drawn from history, geography, political science, economics, anthropology, sociology, science, and the arts. They include content and activities that may be used to develop insight into human relationships in such a way that children build competence in basic social processes and skills essential in democratic living. The social studies make rich contributions to the growth and development of children because the central function of the social studies is identical with the central purpose of education—the development of democratic citizenship.

How, then, do the social studies differ from the social sciences? Wesley has clearly pointed out the difference by stating that the social studies are "those portions of the social sciences selected for instructional purposes."² The social sciences are scholarly and advanced studies of human relationships, while the social studies are an area of curriculum similar to the language arts.

What is included in the social studies? What topics and units of work³ are emphasized in different grades? Although there are many differences among school systems, well-planned programs include content, activities, and materials pertaining to human relationships in the home, school, community and other places near and far in both time and space. Experiences are provided to help children become effective as persons and as members of groups. The following grade-by-grade overview shows the dominant emphasis in each grade and the wide range of units as reported in recent courses of study.

KINDERGARTEN AND GRADE I The dominant emphasis in these grades is upon the immediate environment of the child. Units on Home, School, and Neighborhood are most frequently mentioned. Other unit titles include Pets, School Workers, Neighborhood Friends, Holidays Seasons, Trucks Health and Safety, the Playhouse, the Zoo or Circus, the Farm, the Store, the Service Station, the Toy Store, and Vacation Activities.

GRADE II Units on the Community, with emphasis upon Community Workers or Helpers, are recommended in most courses of study. Units specifically mentioned are Our City, the Bakery, Farm, Dairy Farm, Library, Airport, Firemen, Policemen, Trains, Trucks,

² E. B. Wesley, "The Social Studies," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (W. S. Monroe Ed.) New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950, p. 1214.

³ See one of the sample units of work in the Appendix to clarify the meaning intended by "unit of work." Detailed attention is given to unit planning in Chapter 5.



Los Angeles

Content from many fields of learning is drawn upon as needed to solve problems in the social studies, and a variety of activities and materials are utilized. Why should children learn more and be more interested when such an approach is used?

Holidays, Our Food, Our Clothing, Our Homes, Plants and Animals, and Having Fun in Our Community

GRADE III The Larger Community is emphasized with attention to community-wide functions and activities. The range of units includes Securing Food, Shelter and Clothing, Transportation, Communication, Education, Water Supply, the Airport, Boats and Harbors, the History of Our Community, Good Americans, Indians, Life in a Primitive Community, Children in Other Lands, Communities in Early Times

GRADE IV Units on other lands and the child's home state are



San Diego County

Civic responsibility may be developed through school community service projects as well as through experiences in the classroom. What are some lasting values of experiences such as this?

most frequently mentioned Unit titles include Living in Our State Life in Other Lands Mexico Switzerland Holland Japan High Lands Low Lands Cold Lands Hot Lands Wet and Dry Lands Peoples of the Plains Transportation Communication Conservation, Recreation Early Settlers Famous People

GRADE V Early American life and life in different regions are emphasized. Illustrative units include Colonial Life Pioneer Life the Westward Movement Regions of the United States Industries Our Neighbors to the South, U S Possessions, Alaska Hawaii Famous Americans, Transportation, and Communication

GRADE VI The dominant emphases at this level appear to be Europe and European backgrounds of American history the Western Hemisphere, and the Eastern Hemisphere. The diversity of topics is great, however including American Neighbors Europe, Africa Asia,

China, Japan, Mexico, Latin America, the British Empire, Canada, United States Possessions, the Far East, Australia, the Pacific Islands, the World, Aviation, Conservation, the Scandinavian Countries, and the Mediterranean Countries

GRADE VII The most frequently mentioned topics are United States History, Civics, Geography, and the Eastern Hemisphere Unit titles are Early American History, Old World Backgrounds, the Beginning of America, Our Government, the Constitution, Working Together in Our Community, the Modern Community, the Far East, Living on Other Continents, Peoples in Other Environments, Living in Other Countries, Early Man, and Industries

GRADE VIII American History, the Constitution, and the Growth of American Institutions are most frequently mentioned. Illustrative titles of units are the Growth of Democracy, American Government, the Industrial Revolution, Great Americans, Great Documents in United States History, the Beginning and Growth of Our Nation, Our Possessions, Our Relationships With Other Countries, and the United Nations

This brief overview indicates that most programs begin with the immediate environment of the child and move outward to increasingly larger areas and more distant regions. The here and now is given first emphasis with attention in later grades to ways of living in other communities, the state, the nation, and countries throughout the world. Indians and primitive cultures appear to be receiving decreasing emphasis while such topics as the expanded community, life in our state, the air age, our relations to other people, community problems, Latin America, world relations, the impact of science on daily living, and life situations vital to children are receiving increased emphasis. That a study of the United States is not neglected may be shown by pointing out the home, school, community emphasis in the primary grades, the emphasis on our state in the middle grades, and the stressing of United States History in Grades V, VII, VIII, and on an advanced level in secondary schools in many communities.

As units such as those listed above are developed, attention is given to major areas of living such as transportation, communication, production of goods, conservation, aesthetic and religious expression. Thus, as the program moves from home, school, and community to state, nation, and other lands children develop increasingly deeper insights into ways in which man meets basic needs for food, shelter, clothing, and security. Other areas of the curriculum are drawn upon as needed to round out and enrich social learnings. For example, art,

literature, and music of other cultures become an important part of the units of work in which other cultures are studied. A variety of activities and materials are used to facilitate problem solving planning, discussion, evaluation, varied group and individual activities, community resources, audio visual materials, books, references. In short, the social studies as an area of the curriculum include content, activities, and materials organized and utilized to achieve definite goals of instruction.

Two other terms should be defined at this point *social education* and *social learning*. *Social education* is used synonymously with *social studies* by many individuals, although the term implies a consideration of all school activities that contribute to social learning. *Social learning* is used to refer to the child's social growth and development resulting from experiences in and out of school. The term *social learning* is broader than *social studies* since it includes all the experiences of the child that tend to promote his social development.

Social learning takes place in all situations in which the child interacts with others—the community, the playground, the lunchroom, the social studies class, and other areas of the curriculum. In all school situations attention should be given to effective group processes, cooperation, helping others, working together, and similar aspects of socially desirable behavior. Social attitudes, ideals, and concepts grow and develop as a result of *all* the child's experiences, not just those in the social studies. This fact is being recognized in better school systems wherein the entire school program is utilized to contribute to social learning.

What, then, becomes the role of the social studies? Is the role of the social studies less significant? Need less attention be given to the social studies as an area of the curriculum?

The social studies become increasingly significant; in fact, all areas of the curriculum take on increasing significance when they are viewed as making contributions to the child's social competence. Each area must be analyzed carefully to determine ways in which it can contribute to social learning. The specific contributions of the social studies are considered in the following section.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES TO THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION

The functions or goals of the social studies should be viewed with special reference to the purposes of education in American de-

mocracy.* Each area of the curriculum should be viewed in terms of the unique contributions it can make to the over-all purposes of education. Viewed in this light the social studies can and do make many specific contributions to self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. Several concrete examples of ways in which the social studies contribute to these major purposes follow.

SELF REALIZATION. The social studies contribute to self-realization by providing experiences that bring about personal growth. The child's need to develop an "inquiring mind" can be met in part through a consideration of vital problems and situations involving human relationships and the individual's role in group endeavors. Many opportunities exist in the social studies to use and strengthen group-action skills, language skills, number skills, and study skills in attacking problems of importance to the group. Listening, discussing, observing, experimenting, constructing, dramatizing, reading, reporting, and evaluating can be used in such a way as to meet individual needs and to improve each child's competence in individual and group enterprises. An understanding of the importance of personal and community health in group living grows out of studies of ways of living in home, community, and state. Self direction, cooperation, responsibility, and similar modes of behavior can be developed in group activities in the social studies, thus helping each child to increase his personal effectiveness in living and working with others.

HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS. Since the social studies are concerned primarily with human relationships, they make many contributions to the realization of this goal. Respect for others at home and abroad should be emphasized in each major area of experience or unit. Friendship, cooperation, and courtesy should be put to use and developed in cooperative activities in the social studies. Appreciation of the home, family ideals, and the role of different members of the family should be engendered at all levels of instruction as groups are studied at home and abroad. Democratic values and ways of working together should characterize group processes. The atmosphere in the classroom and throughout the school should be conducive to the establishment of warm human relationships in the daily living of children. Understandings and social concepts learned in the social studies should be put to use in other activities in and out of school, those learned outside the

* Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1938.

social studies should be drawn upon and used to enrich the social studies

ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY The social studies in the elementary school can contribute to economic efficiency by providing experiences that build attitudes, understandings, and skills essential to effective workmanship. Attention must be given to the use of effective work habits and study skills in carrying out individual and group responsibilities. Through group planning attention should be given to the requirements of various tasks, ways to achieve them, and the role of each individual in accomplishing accepted responsibilities. As different groups in the community are studied, appreciation of the work they do and their contributions to community living should be emphasized, and, as children mature, attention may well be given to problems of consumer education. It is out of such experiences that children develop the backgrounds needed to become competent workers in home, school, and community activities.

CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY A sense of civic responsibility can be developed in a variety of ways in the social studies. The acceptance and discharge of responsibilities cooperatively planned by the group is a first consideration. Being a responsible member of the group and helping to achieve group purposes is without doubt a fundamental aspect of the growth of civic responsibility. Appreciating the needs and contributions of others and giving assistance to others are likewise basic. Respect for group-made standards, respect for differences of opinion, and regard for constituted authority need emphasis in the program. Community and school service projects provide an opportunity for active participation in civic centered activities. Loyalty to American ideals, values, and ways of living should grow and develop as children mature. The place of people, laws, and institutions in democratic living should emerge as a major concept in human relationships.

PURPOSES IN CURRICULUM GUIDES

The goals of the social studies as proposed in curriculum guides further illustrate the contributions that can be made to the purposes of education. Although the following examples vary in form and amount of detail, they emphasize the role of the social studies in developing attitudes, understandings, appreciations, skills, concepts, and functional information essential to democratic living.

SAN DIEGO COUNTY, CALIFORNIA⁵

The purpose of the social studies program is to provide experiences that will help each child live effectively in our democratic society. In this society, the individual is expected to interact with others in such a way as to realize his own greatest potentialities and at the same time contribute to the betterment of the group. The child will be expected to develop in knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes, and appreciations as described in the following pupil behaviors.

Acquiring functional information and basic understandings of how man interacts with the physical and social environment of his home, neighborhood, state, nation, and world in the satisfaction of his needs.

Developing understanding of the institutions of democracy and of loyalty to them, believing in the basic human freedoms, and becoming skilled in the democratic processes as a way of improving human relationships.

Gaining understanding and appreciation of the different contributions of various cultures groups and individuals in the advancement of civilization.

Gaining skill in critical thinking and problem solving especially as these skills function in human relationships.

Working with confidence, responsibility, and effectiveness in group activities as well as independently.

Accepting the decisions of the majority and at the same time respecting the point of view of minorities.

Accepting responsibility for one's own acts and for the maintenance of one's independence and self-direction.

Gaining insight into moral, ethical, and spiritual values as forces in human behavior and human relationships.

Developing social attitudes consistent with democratic values such as cooperation, open mindedness, and respect for the worth of others.

Developing an enduring interest in human problems coupled with a sense of responsibility to act in ways conducive to social progress.

Coping intelligently with change, adjusting ideas and behaviors to developing situations, and participating effectively in bringing about new conditions for the improvement of group and community living.

Gaining skills for obtaining information, such as listening, observing, reading and interpreting printed materials, graphic materials, maps and globes, experimenting, and interviewing.

Gaining skills for sharing information such as discussing, reporting,

⁵ San Diego County Schools *Some Guidelines for Organizing and Teaching the Social Studies*, 1954 pp. 6-7

orally, reporting in writing, constructing, dramatizing, singing, dancing, and drawing

Achieving feelings of adequacy as a person and as an accepted member of the group

WISCONSIN*

The social studies program should foster growth of children and youth in the following understandings, attitudes, and skills

Understandings

- 1 Of the democratic faith and its meaning for human welfare and happiness
- 2 Of the application of democratic faith in the development of the American heritage
- 3 Of the forces which have made for world interdependence and the need for world organization
- 4 Of the historical and geographical reasons for the behavior of regional and national groups
- 5 Of the local community and its problems, and the need for wide participation in community concerns by all citizens
- 6 Of the significance in social problems of the mental health and emotional balance of individual human beings

Attitudes

- 1 That all human beings regardless of race, national origin, color, or any matter over which they have no control, are entitled to equal rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness
- 2 That we concern ourselves with achieving and improving human welfare and democratic liberties everywhere in the world
- 3 That all citizens should participate actively in working toward the solution of community problems for social betterment
- 4 That reflective group thinking can serve as an approach toward the solution of social problems. Such thinking on a group basis is necessary to bring about an informed and enlightened public opinion

Skills and/or Abilities

- 1 The ability to take part in group discussion
- 2 The ability to take part in group planning
- 3 The ability to think reflectively on social problems
- 4 The ability to search out and use valid and adequate sources of information
- 5 The ability to evaluate ideas and opinions on controversial problems

* Taken from *Scope and Sequences of the Social Studies*, Bulletin 14 Madison, Wisconsin State Department of Education 1947, pp. 6-7

offered by and through radio, movies, newspapers, periodicals, books, etc., in a manner which will contribute to the general welfare

SUMMARY OF MAJOR PURPOSES

Many other excellent statements of social studies goals could be given. Instead, a summary of major purposes as reported in recent courses of study is presented below to highlight the most significant goals and to illustrate current trends. In reading it note that the emphasis is upon action and behavior rather than upon passive acceptance of information.

The major purposes of the social studies are to help each child to

- 1 Become a democratic person whose behavior is guided by democratic values, who is loyal to the American way of life, and who appreciates the sacrifices and contributions made to promote democratic living here and throughout the world
- 2 Develop modes of behavior consistent with democratic values, such as responsibility, concern for others, open mindedness, creativeness and cooperation, and to use them in relationships with others
- 3 Develop group-action skills and social competency in inter-group relations, recognizing the value of group decision making, showing respect for differences of opinion, and exhibiting high regard for rights of minorities yet abiding by majority decisions
- 4 Develop the ability to think critically and creatively and use problem-solving skills in situations involving human relationships, use dependable sources of information, locate, evaluate, select, organize, and present information effectively, and base action on sound conclusions
- 5 Appreciate and respect other persons, cultural similarities and differences among peoples and the contributions of others to our ways of living, realizing that human dignity and personality are of first importance in human relationships regardless of race, color, or class
- 6 Acquire and use functional information, concepts, and understandings of basic social functions of human living such as production of goods and services, transportation and communication, conservation of resources, aesthetic and religious expression, education, recreation, and government, the impact of scientific advance and education upon ways of living, the effect of moral and spiritual values upon human behavior; ways to improve family life, community living, and national international welfare, and the increasing interdependence characteristic of modern living
- 7 Become responsive to needs and problems of others and act courageously and with integrity to bring about changes consistent with democratic ideals and processes

If purposes such as the foregoing are to be achieved democratic values must permeate every phase of the program. In addition, democratic behavior must be developed in a concrete and practical manner. The social studies have a unique contribution to make in this regard. The meaning of democratic values and processes can be clarified through actual use and through study of their impact on the lives of others. Boys and girls can learn in a firsthand way the finest kind of democratic behavior through the many cooperative experiences that are planned and developed in the social studies. Loyalty to American ideals and appreciation of the contributions of others to our democratic heritage can be developed through carefully planned experiences in units of work. In later years other countries and international organizations can be studied in light of their efforts to promote democratic living in an independent world. Democratic values and behavior learned in the social studies can be used and carried over into situations which arise in the home, school, and community. Attention is given to practical ways to accomplish this in the remaining sections of this chapter.

DEMOCRATIC VALUES AND PROCESSES

Democracy is an effective way of living based upon fundamental and lasting ideals. Individuals are respected, have dignity, make choices and decisions, assume and discharge responsibilities, use and help to preserve inalienable rights, and have opportunities to work with others in the pursuit of common interests. Group welfare is promoted and maintained through cooperative action, respect for human equality, concern for others, and faith in mankind. Creative expression and thinking are nurtured and used for development of the individual and improvement of the general welfare of the group. High value is placed upon the use of intelligence in solving group problems meeting individual needs, resolving conflicts, and improving human welfare. Concern for others, self direction, critical thinking, cooperative group action, self-respect, acceptance of responsibility, and freedom of expression are key ingredients in democratic relationships. All of these are significant in daily living and are the birthright of America's children.

If democratic values are really to be learned by children, they must be *lived* in all phases of the school program. If the teacher, other school workers, and children do not live democratically in their relationships with one another, much negative learning will take place. Through daily living which is democratically planned and guided,

children gain many practical insights into effective democratic processes. The desired outcome is behavior that promotes the highest quality of democratic living in all situations.

Three steps need to be taken to accomplish this task. (1) Democratic values and processes must be clearly conceived by the teacher. These may be drawn from such documents as the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, and from studies of American democracy as it operates and as it has developed. (2) Specific implications of these values need to be considered. The specific ways in which teachers have used this material as guides in classroom planning will suggest practical applications in the social studies. (3) Since each teacher must consider practical ways in which the values can be used in a given class specific applications must be based upon the needs of the children in the group and on conditions in the community in which the children live.

Presented below are several basic democratic values with specific implications for the elementary school program.¹ These implications have been developed in a cooperative study carried out by the writer and sixty classroom teachers in Grades I to VIII. The examples included are among those which teachers themselves believe to be of greatest importance at the present time. As you read them, note other implications that should be added and specific ways in which you can apply them in the social studies program.

Government of a group is effective only if there is government by the group. In classrooms where this value is used children have opportunities to develop group standards for use as guideposts in planning and working together. Group enterprises are developed and evaluated in such a way that each child grows in responsibility and self direction, growth away from dependence upon the teacher is encouraged. When rules and regulations of the school are adhered to as they must be if the rights and privileges of all are to be respected, children are guided to understand why each one has a responsibility to abide by established regulations. Intelligent acceptance of responsibility is substituted for blind obedience. As children mature, they develop increasing appreciation of their contributions, as well as those of others to the improvement of home, school, and community living through government by, for, and of the people.

Human well being, happiness, and good will toward others are fundamental. This value is related to the basic needs of children for

¹ The writer is indebted to Dr. Harold C. Hand, University of Illinois for many of the ideas in this section.

Feelings of security, status, and belonging. Each child needs opportunities to contribute to group work, to achieve recognition, and to be well received by others, he needs to accord the same opportunities to others. Emphasis should be given to ways in which members of the group can contribute to human happiness and welfare through sharing, teamwork, group planning, and cooperative action. As children progress through school they should learn about the many ways in which great men and women have contributed to human welfare through education, science, music, art, literature, and other fields of study. The daily work and contributions of those around them should not be overlooked.

There is faith in the ability of men to govern themselves wisely. Coupled with this is the belief that this ability is not possessed by a few or a single group. In classrooms where these values are used, children have opportunities to consider and develop qualities of leadership, to be leaders and followers, and to engage in self government under expert teacher guidance. Once plans are made, and standards for work are established, the teacher encourages and guides each child to carry his responsibilities through to completion. The varying talents and abilities of children are discovered, used and developed in group and individual enterprises regardless of race, sex, creed, or economic status. A growing appreciation of the importance of this value in the extension of democracy in America and throughout the world develops as children approach adulthood. The role of education in improving man's ability to govern himself is highlighted in meaningful situations at home and abroad as the curriculum is extended to include wider horizons.

Consent of the governed is a basic element in democratic procedure. In classrooms where this value is used, group planning and discussion are undertaken to set up purposes and to establish ways of achieving them. The teacher is a guide and a counselor, not an arbitrary moderator who makes and enforces all decisions. The importance of adhering to group standards is stressed and each child understands, accepts, and carries responsibilities appropriate to his level of development. Many opportunities are provided for children to develop the skills needed to make wise choices, to develop sound plans to carry them out, and to evaluate and change them. As children attain higher levels of social understanding, consideration is given to the continuous struggle of mankind throughout history to develop and maintain the concept of the "consent of the governed".

Self direction and self-control in accordance with group welfare

Class - Officers.

President Julie Hema

Vice-President Teri Barr

Sec.-Treas. Paul Pericoli

Class-Meeting

Tuesday - 11:00

Social-Studies

Service

Marcia Lentz

Red-Cross-Danny Trotter
Connie Ashton

Student Leaders - Danny Clifton

Meet 9:30 - Tuesday

Team Captains

Boys Sam Capelick

Girls Kathy Lynch
Joan Crookes

Mixed Carolyn Hale
Denny Peterson

Albany, California

Children need opportunities to be leaders and followers and to render service to the group. Can you think of other situations that might be used for this purpose?

are significant aspects of democratic living. In classrooms where this value is used the responsibilities that go with self-direction and self-control are emphasized in situations vital to the individual and the group. Opportunities are provided for children to express themselves creatively, to develop and use the skills needed to be self-directive, and to accept reasonable consequences when responsibilities are neglected. The great contributions of individuals to our democratic heritage in the past and present are appreciated because of their impact on living today. The place of regulations and laws in promoting self-direction in socially acceptable ways is considered in local, state, national, and international settings.

Freedom of inquiry with the free play of intelligence upon all problems is essential In classrooms where this value is used, freedom of thinking, speaking, and believing and full recognition of the rights of each individual are basic Through group discussion, problems are defined and ways of attacking them are developed creatively Skills used in critical thinking are emphasized through problem solving, which includes such steps and procedures as

- Discovering and defining problems
- Suggesting proposals and considering opinions
- Being open minded about other proposals and opinions
- Finding and verifying information related to proposed solutions
- Selecting the most appropriate information
- Recognizing emotion as a factor in group interaction.
- Basing conclusions on facts
- Organizing facts and conclusions along with a plan of action
- Carrying out the plan and evaluating its effectiveness *

Majority decision with minority protection is used to determine policy When this value is used, group discussions are guided so that all points of view may be heard Group standards are developed and carried out by all members of the group, they are changed on the basis of evaluation carried out in such a way that each person can make suggestions Children have opportunities to learn that each individual in the group has rights and responsibilities which must be respected and not subjected to undue pressure Minorities are always heard so that the policies they are seeking to establish can be considered by the majority Persuasion based on reason is used to bring about change Experts are consulted when problems arise which cannot be handled by the group Real teamwork and fair play characterize the making of plans and decisions by both majority and minority groups

Each individual is respected and accorded equal justice and equal opportunity In classrooms where this value is used, race, creed, economic status, or social position have no effect whatsoever on the child's opportunities A wide range of experiences are provided so that each child has guidance in developing his capacities to the maximum The unique contributions of each child are sought by the teacher All children in the group, including those with varied racial and nationality backgrounds, develop feelings of belonging and prestige through contributions to group activities

Individual responsibility and freedom go hand in hand When

* See Chapter 6 for detailed suggestions.

this value is used, group standards are made and carried out so that each child will learn to use freedom in a responsible manner as he engages in dramatic play, construction, and other activities. Through firsthand experience children learn that freedom exists only as the rights of others are respected and as responsibilities are carried out. All children have opportunities to discharge various duties in the classroom. Freedom of thought and expression are encouraged, and emphasis is given to the importance of accuracy, reasonableness, and appropriateness in stating thoughts and opinions. In the acceptance of freedom of expression, children are guided to recognize the need for permitting others to express their thoughts and feelings, to take turns in planning and evaluating classroom activities. As children mature, they develop increasing insight into the struggle for freedom and an appreciation of man's steady progress in accepting responsibility that has characterized man's efforts to build a more democratic society.

The examples cited above are a few of the ways in which teachers and children may live by democratic values as they work together in the elementary school. Since children learn what they live, this is one of the most practical approaches a teacher can use to develop democratic citizenship. As a teacher works with a given group other ways in which democratic values can be used in the program should be discovered.

DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR

In addition to using democratic values in the social studies and throughout the school program, the teacher must be aware of the kind of behavior which is consistent with democratic values. Little will be gained unless the behavior that children develop is democratic in nature. After all, the acid test of learning is the behavior of the child. The teacher must be able to recognize democratic behavior in various situations in order to make effective plans, to guide children to higher levels of development, and to evaluate their growth.

Implicit in the foregoing statement of democratic values are the following categories of behavior: responsibility, concern for others, open mindedness, creativeness and cooperation. Each unit of work that is planned should make a contribution to the development of the foregoing categories of behavior. Attention is now given to a description of specific aspects of behavior in each category. The descriptions are based upon anecdotal records of children at work in various situations in the social studies. As you read them, try to anticipate practical ways

in which you can develop democratic behavior through experiences in the social studies

RESPONSIBILITY The acceptance and discharge of responsibility is an essential element in democratic living. In fact unless members of a group carry out their responsibilities little or nothing can be accomplished and chaos and anarchy may result. For every privilege for every plan of action and for every set of standards developed to improve group living there are related responsibilities that must be carried out. The success of American democracy depends upon the



Alameda County

Provide for individual responsibilities in research activities set up as part of cooperative problem solving. What other responsibilities can children accept as they select, organize and present information related to questions and problems that arise in the social studies?

acceptance of responsibility by every person as an individual and as a member of various groups

Children who are developing responsibility set up worthy purposes and help plan ways to achieve them Specific jobs are established for individuals and for groups of varying size as plans are made Group tasks are accepted as willingly as individual jobs, and a *we* feeling is exhibited in group work Evaluation is recognized as a part of each activity, and each member of the group participates in the evaluative process Jobs are carried through to completion, and attention is given to the care of materials and equipment Children are growing in their recognition of the fact that a breakdown in the assumption of responsibility leads to a breakdown in democratic group action

CONCERN FOR OTHERS Individual development and group welfare require concern for others in all facets of democratic living This category of behavior is important because "people are important" The "milk of human kindness" that permeates true democratic living clearly differentiates democracy from other contemporary ideologies With concern for others in our daily living there is warmth, kindness, and mutual respect It is important in little things as well as in big things, for as Franklin said "Human felicity is produced not so much by great pieces of good fortune that seldom happen, as by little advantages that occur every day"

Children who are developing concern for others are sensitive to the needs, problems, and interests of others at home, in school, and in the community They rely on orderly methods of achieving purposes in work and play, and genuinely enjoy experiences with others In addition to learning about injustices and problems, efforts are made to help others and to improve their welfare, it is not enough to simply feel sorry for them Sincere respect is accorded others when differences in race, religion, status and other factors are discovered, common needs and likenesses are recognized and differences are appreciated There is growing appreciation of the significance of constituted authority in the home, school, and expanding environment as a potent factor in the promotion of human welfare As children mature, the fact is recognized that in a democracy authority rests with the people, and that maximum concern for others is secured only when the people give adequate time and thought to problems of government

OPEN MINDEDNESS Critical creative thinking and problem solving which are essential in democratic citizenship, call for a high level of open mindedness Group action is most effective when all points of view are considered in planning and evaluation Individual action

can be improved when ideas are secured from others and when each child willingly shares with others Daily living reaches a high level of quality when prejudice and superstition are rooted out and the free play of intelligence is brought to bear upon issues and problems And, as Jefferson put it "Error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it"

Children who are open minded consider, explore, and use ideas of others as well as their own They seek help and suggestions, and endeavor to be impartial and accurate so that more effective solutions to problems may be secured They consider facts and opinions carefully in order to select those most pertinent to stated needs and problems They consider new facts and opinions, and are willing to make changes in the light of them They seek improved ways of doing things, establish reasons for making changes or continuing a given plan of action, and give support to what they believe is right Superstitions and unfounded beliefs are eliminated through a study of the facts involved Children must also be helped to gain insight into emotion as a factor in opinions and to learn such ways of curbing emotion as talking problems over with others, reconsidering one's position, being willing to try other solutions, and making personal sacrifices when group desires conflict Children who are developing open mindedness are also beginning to recognize the closed mind and the propaganda techniques which are used to instill distorted facts and ideas in the minds of susceptible individuals By emphasizing critical thinking in each unit of work, the teacher can provide many opportunities to develop and evaluate the growth of open mindedness

CREATIVENESS Much of the greatness of America has resulted from the creativeness of her people Down through the years the people of America have created new ways of doing things as frontier after frontier has been reached and passed The children of America need opportunities to develop creative ways of doing things so that democratic living will be continuously improved by a constant flow of new ideas generation after generation

Creativeness can be viewed as new or original responses made by children in problem solving, use of materials, group action, construction, dramatic play, rhythm, the arts and use of community resources Children who are growing in creativeness search for and use new ideas to solve problems and to express thoughts and feelings growing out of their experiences They secure pleasure from creative thinking, expression, and sharing of ideas with others They are sensitive to the originality of others, and are appreciative of new discoveries made in



Alameda County

Here is a type of cooperative activity that should not be overlooked. Note the roles different children are taking. What other examples of cooperation might be found in creative expression?

the daily life of the group. They are growing in the ability to develop the skills which are needed for clearer expression of their ideas. They evaluate their own work and the work of others in a helpful and sympathetic manner, giving attention to *why* and *how* they do things as well as to *what* they do. Through construction, discussion, dramatic representation, research, problem solving, and the like, the teacher has many opportunities to develop creativeness in the social studies.

COOPERATION The ability to cooperate, to work with others, to be a member of a team, is of prime importance in our culture. The teamwork employed in industry, education, science, government and other significant activities is illustrative of this point. From early days when neighbors worked together to raise the walls of a log cabin, or to have a town meeting, to the present time when a crew of workers erects a skyscraper, or a group participates in a meeting of the city council, progress has been accelerated because of cooperation. And

now cooperation among nations of the world looms large as a major problem of our times

Children who are developing cooperative behavior share ideas, materials, and pleasure with others. They are eager to work with others, to secure and give help, and to contribute to group enterprises. They accept responsibilities and carry them out tactfully and courteously, and with consideration for the rights and responsibilities of others. They help in group planning, action, and evaluation in a variety of group enterprises in home, school, and community. When plans are changed on the basis of group decisions, they continue to work jointly with others without grumbling or bickering. They recognize the contribution of joint action in home, school, and community to both individual and group welfare. As they mature and undertake advanced units in the social studies, they gain insight into the value of cooperation in national and international situations.

Another point should be emphasized regarding cooperation. As children engage in cooperative group work under expert teacher guidance, the other four categories of behavior can be brought into play in a unified manner. Responsibility must be taken for various tasks, the showing of concern for others helps to improve working relationships, creativeness is needed in tackling problems as they arise, and open-mindedness is necessary as points of view are shared and solutions to problems are proposed. This is as it should be since it would be highly impractical to isolate each category of behavior and try to develop it in isolation of the other. After all, the child's behavior is unitary, and any description of various components of it is made only to clarify the elements involved in it. In Chapter 6, specific suggestions are made regarding group processes that can be used in the social studies to bring about cooperative group action and thereby develop higher levels of competence in solving problems that arise in human relationships.

MAKING SPECIFIC PLANS TO DEVELOP DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR

Each unit of work in the social studies can make specific contributions to the development of the behaviors outlined above. Three approaches need to be used in this regard. First, plans must be made for specific things that children can *do*, since it is through actual participation that democratic behavior is lived and learned. Second, plans must be made for children to *observe* democratic behavior in action.

Third, plans must be made for children to *study* and analyze democratic behavior as portrayed in books, films, and other instructional resources. Note the three levels of abstractness in the suggested planning: *doing*, *observing*, and *studying*. While actual doing is essential, observing and studying should not be minimized for they make it possible to extend and enrich the child's concept of democratic behavior. The three examples which follow are illustrative of the type of planning that should be undertaken in each unit of work.

1. In a unit of work on Home and Family Living, *cooperation* may be developed to higher levels through such experiences as the following:

Doing Planning and arranging a playhouse, sharing tools and materials, working together, and helping each other make furniture, home furnishings, dishes, table settings, dolls and doll clothes, pet cages, and scrapbooks, planning and engaging in dramatic play centered on home activities, making and carrying out standards to use on a field trip to see a home under construction, taking turns and sharing in group discussion of unit activities.

Observing Mother and father, and brothers and sisters, working together at home, children cooperating at home and at school, monitors and committees at work, men working together to build a house in the neighborhood, ways in which the janitor, teachers, and children in school work together to make the school a happy, clean place to work and play.

Studying Flat pictures, film strips, and films showing members of a family gardening, cleaning the yard, shopping, having fun together, and the like, picture and story books which portray cooperation among children, children and parents, and adults engaging in neighborhood activities, stories and poems that highlight teamwork in home and family living. Responsibility, creativeness, concern for others, and open mindedness may be outlined in a similar manner for this unit of work.

2. Ways in which *responsibility* may be developed are shown in a unit on Community Living. If you are planning to teach a unit on The Community, you should work out similar examples for the other categories of behavior.

Doing Developing and sticking to standards of conduct on a field trip, observing safety regulations in parks, playgrounds, and on transportation facilities, using tools and materials properly in making model buildings and other objects, engaging in dramatic play centered on activities of community workers, helping to make picture collections.

of community workers and activities, carrying out specific responsibilities in making and operating a center of interest such as a post office, airport, or harbor, taking turns and making contributions in discussing, planning, and evaluating activities as the unit develops

Observing Responsibilities carried out by children in the classroom at work on murals, layouts, and other activities, the work of policemen, post office employees, and other community workers, duties of nurses, doctors, and other health workers, men at work building a house in the neighborhood, the work of employees in stores, parks, and on playgrounds, and demonstrations put on by individuals from local factories, the airport, or dairy to highlight responsibilities of various workers

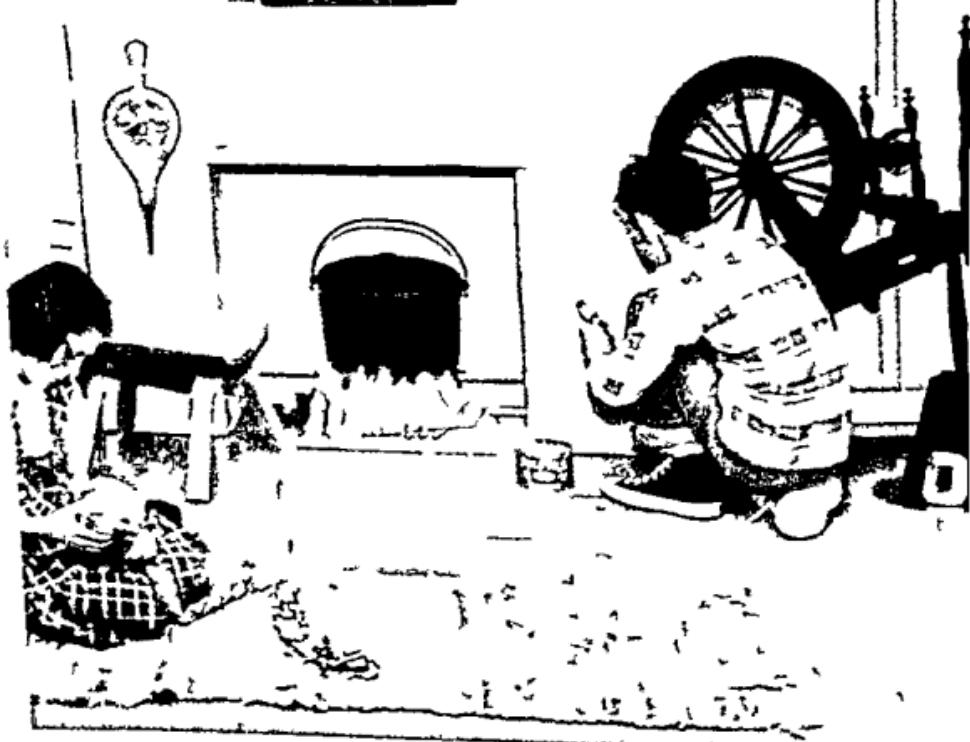
Studying Film strips on firemen, policemen, and other community workers, films on fire prevention, community health, and safety, current events from newspapers, radio, and television dealing with responsibilities of local citizens, bulletin board arrangements and reading materials which portray responsibilities of both children and adults in community living

3 To illustrate ways to develop democratic behavior in upper grades, a unit on Life in Early America has been selected. Specific attention is given to ways in which *creativity* may be developed, recognizing that the other categories of behavior may be analyzed in a similar manner

Doing Planning and using a variety of ways to organize information, i.e., pictorial summaries, booklets, dioramas, and slides, creating songs and rhythms related to such activities as quilting, husking, hunting, weaving, and churning, making instruments to accompany songs and rhythms, drawing pictures and murals, making candles, dolls with authentic costumes, utensils and other objects for use in creative dramatics, discussion, and reports

Observing Individuals invited to school to demonstrate the use of spinning wheels, looms, and other objects used in early days, models, utensils, quilts, and other objects arranged in an exhibit, or museum, to highlight creative uses of materials in early times, authentic folk dances and songs performed by community or school groups, plays and pageants given to celebrate holidays and events of historical interest, creative contributions made by members of the class as the unit of work develops

Studying Pictures, films, books, and other instructional materials which portray creativity in the use of resources for food, shelter, and clothing, art, music, and literature of early times, contributions



San Diego Co
Materials can be arranged creatively to present and share significant learning targets. Why are creative arrangements such as this one effective in supporting social learning?

of great men and women during the early days of our country, explorers and ways in which they blazed trails and opened up new territories, radio and television programs of people and events in early times.

The foregoing examples are illustrative of practical procedures that teachers have used to develop democratic behavior. In subsequent chapters, other examples of activities which can be used to develop democratic behavior will be presented. The point should be emphasized here, however, that examples on the "doing level" can be found in nearly all activities included in the social studies which involve group work, they also can be found in daily living throughout the school program. On the "observing level," children can be guided to note examples in the classroom, throughout the school, and in the community. As historical units or units on faraway places are developed, plays, festivals, pageants, programs developed by school and community groups, and demonstrations by individuals invited to school may be witnessed by children. On the third level—the studying level—books, films, film strips, and other resources are replete with good examples of democratic behavior if we but look for them. Television and radio programs should not be overlooked, particularly those related to topics in the social studies. Finally, current events are a good source of examples. Occasionally, it is possible to arrange a bulletin board of pictures and clippings which emphasize concern for others, open mindedness, or one of the other categories of behavior. By giving systematic attention to the development of democratic behavior in all of these ways, a practical and realistic contribution to democratic citizenship can be made.

In this chapter the social studies have been defined as an area of the curriculum. Major purposes have been outlined and democratic values and behaviors have been discussed. In the next chapter consideration is given to types of programs and ways in which the social studies have been organized to bring about significant outcomes.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES*

1. Obtain a local curriculum guide and check it for the following: How are the social studies defined? Is citizenship stressed? How is good citizenship defined?

* At the end of each chapter are listed questions and activities to stimulate discussion and application of principles and practices presented in the text. There will not be right answer or "rule-of-thumb" solutions in most instances. Discuss the pros and cons and try to arrive at answers and solutions that are reasonable in your par-

What specific objectives are given for the social studies? How do the objectives compare with those given in the text? Is democratic behavior emphasized?

2. Write out in your own words a definition of the social studies appropriate in your situation, discuss it with others and see if they agree.

3. Prepare a statement of objectives of the social studies that you believe to be most important. Discuss your statement with others and see if they agree.

4. Discuss the democratic values outlined in this chapter. In what ways can you use them as you work with children? In what ways can they be used as you work with fellow teachers? With parents?

5. Visit a classroom and note specific examples of democratic behavior. Try to find examples for each of the categories discussed in this chapter. Share and discuss your examples with fellow students.

6. Prepare a list of specific ways in which democratic behavior might be developed in a unit of work you are planning to teach. Or, analyze one of the units in the Appendix. Make a worksheet as follows for each category of democratic behavior:

RESPONSIBILITY

Doing _____

Observing _____

Studying _____

Note specific examples in the appropriate spaces. Share and discuss your examples with others, endeavoring to build up an extensive compilation of practical ways in which democratic behavior can be developed.

ticular situation. Whenever possible, visit classrooms and discuss the questions and activities with teachers who are developing a good social studies program. Secure local and state courses of study, units of work and guides for teachers, and study them for related information and techniques. In every instance, make specific and practical adaptations to children in the community where you are teaching or plan to teach.

The writer has found that "buzz sessions" made up of five to eight individuals are helpful in discussing questions and in working on suggested activities. In some instances two or three individuals may pool their efforts to real advantage. Those interested in teaching children in a particular grade should share ideas whenever specific grade-level applications are involved.

Select for study and discussion those questions and activities of greatest importance to you. Omit any of little relevance in your situation. It is better to do a few pertinent ones thoroughly, with specific application of principles in the text, than to attempt to handle a large number in a superficial and hasty manner. Be sure to raise questions with fellow students and your instructor on any points that are not clear, or that you do not accept. In short, apply good social studies principles and practices as problems involved in developing a good social studies program are approached.

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Allen Jack (Ed.), *The Teacher of the Social Studies* Twenty third Yearbook Washington, D C. National Council for the Social Studies, 1952 The role of the teacher in improving the social studies with good sections on practical activities and newer practices

American Association of School Administrators, *Educating for American Citizenship* Washington D C. National Education Association, 1954 Numerous examples of programs designed to develop citizenship, several recently developed social studies programs are discussed

Dimond, Stanley, *Schools and the Development of Good Citizens* Final Report, Citizenship Education Study Detroit Wayne University Press, 1953 A summary of a practical study carried out under every day conditions of teaching and learning, a good reference for those wishing to improve citizenship education

Ellsworth, Ruth, and Ole Sand (Eds.), *Improving the Social Studies Curriculum* Twenty sixth Yearbook Washington D C. National Council for the Social Studies, 1955 Forces affecting curriculum change and new trends and emphases are discussed in Chapters 1 and 2

Hanna, Levone, Gladys Potter and Neva Hagaman, *Unit Teaching in the Elementary School* New York Rinehart & Company, Inc, 1955 Specific units of work are presented along with a discussion of techniques to use with children

Harap, Henry, *Social Living in the Curriculum* Nashville George Peabody College for Teachers 1952 A description and critical evaluation of social living programs in selected school systems throughout the country

Hiss Wilhelma, "International Understanding in Elementary Schools A Bibliography" *Social Education* 19 255 256 October, 1955 An annotated bibliography of recent publications that describe what elementary schools are doing to develop international understanding

Meier, A R, F D Cleary and A M Davis *A Curriculum for Citizenship*, Citizenship Education Study Detroit Wayne University Press, 1952 One of the volumes published as a result of the Detroit citizenship study, a description of specific practices

Klee, Loretta (Ed.), *Social Studies for Older Children* Washington, D C. National Council for the Social Studies, 1953 A description of programs for children in Grades IV through VI, basic principles for

developing a sound program are presented along with practical procedures

Moffatt, M P., and H W Howell *Elementary Social Studies Instruction* New York: Longmans, Green & Company, 1952 An overview of social studies in the elementary school, a good discussion of the central library is presented, reference books and other classroom resources are listed in the Appendix

Preston, R C., *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School* New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc., 1950 A good presentation of various types of content units typically included in social studies programs, specific suggestions are made regarding points to emphasize in units of work

Preston, R C. (Ed.), *Teaching World Understanding* New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1955 Concrete descriptions are given of ways to develop world understanding through study of other people, service activities, current affairs, and other activities

Quillen, L J., and L A Hanna, *Education for Social Competence* Chicago: Scott, Foresman Company, 1948 Although written for the secondary school teacher, the sections on point of view, goals, use of current materials, and evaluation are good reading for teachers at all levels of instruction

Spieseke, Alice W., *Social Studies Curriculum and Methods* Washington, D C: National Council for the Social Studies, 1955 A bibliography of National Council publications under topical headings covering all phases of the social studies Yearbooks, bulletins, how-to-do-it pamphlets, magazine articles, and special reports are included

Wesley, E. B., and M A Adams, *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools* Boston: D C. Heath & Co., 1952 A thorough treatment of social studies instruction, practical sections on definition of social studies trends, analysis of society, functions, materials, concepts, current affairs and evaluation

Willcockson, Mary (Ed.), *Social Education of Young Children (Revised)* Washington, D C: National Council for the Social Studies, 1952 A description of practices in the primary grades, practical material on primary units, holidays and evaluation, required reading for teachers of young children.

Young, W E. (Ed.), *The Social Studies in the Elementary School* Twelfth Yearbook Washington, D C: National Council for the Social Studies, 1941 A presentation of basic elements of a good social studies program with good sections on problems, functions, techniques, and evaluation

PRINCIPLES AND PATTERNS OF ORGANIZATION

If the social studies are to make a maximum contribution to the improvement of democratic living, systematic attention must be given to the over-all organization of the program. Types of programs and patterns of organization in use at the present time must be considered. The comprehensiveness or scope of the program, and the sequence of units to be included in different grades require review and study. Legal provisions must be met as they apply in different states. Guidelines for use in developing an effective pattern of organization also must be considered. Attention is given to these and related problems in this chapter.

It should be emphasized that the social studies are an integral part of the child's total curriculum, not a separate phase set aside from other learning experiences. Nor should the social studies in the elementary school be planned and developed without reference to the social studies in the secondary school, since in better programs both are viewed as an integral part of a continuum. Thus, in the discussion which follows it is recognized that the social studies in the elementary school, although considered separately to develop certain understandings, are conditioned by over-all curriculum planning. With this in mind consideration is given first to types of programs that exist at the present time.

TYPES OF PROGRAMS

Analyses of curriculum guides coupled with firsthand visits to school systems indicate that there are several different kinds of social studies programs in operation at the present time. Let us consider each type, recognizing, of course, that there is some overlapping and that

a given school system may not be a "pure type," but may well have features of two or more types.

These programs have been classified in many ways¹ but essentially they can be divided into two groups, namely the subject-matter approach and the experiences-of-children approach. In the subject-matter group are such approaches as *separate textbooks for each subject*, *separate subject units*, and *correlated subject units*. The experiences-of-children approach is coming to be termed *social living* in some school systems. The *comprehensive social-studies-units* approach as it actually operates in some schools is a combination of the subject-matter and experiences-of-children approaches.

TEXTBOOK FOR EACH SUBJECT. This type of program offers textbook instruction in geography, history, and civics. A basic textbook is selected in each field and is used to define the scope of the program. The sequence of content as outlined in the textbooks is usually followed. Children are directed in their study of the textbooks, and class recitations are used to check up on material in the texts. Maps and films are selected and used as they relate to the textbook. Concepts and terms presented in the textbook are taught in much the same way as in the reading program. The ideas in geography are treated separately, although there may be a little correlation with history now and then. The course in civics is viewed as a study of government, and a broad conception of citizenship in daily living is neglected. Facts and information are emphasized and there is little relation to immediate needs and problems of children in this type of program. Cooperative group planning in the social studies is not employed because each subject is approached logically in terms of the content in the textbooks. Very little is done in the primary grades since reading skills are not highly developed, although a few texts may be read if they are within the comprehension of the children. Evaluation is formal, consisting of teacher-made tests and teacher-directed recitations designed to "discover what the children know." Only a few elementary school programs use this approach at the present time.

SEPARATE-SUBJECT UNITS. This approach to the social studies moves away from sole reliance upon a single textbook and presents separate units in geography, history, and civics. Adopted textbooks are used along with other books, pictures, and materials. The separate-subject approach is maintained through the use of so-called units in geography, history, and civics. The units of subject matter deal with prob-

¹ For a good analysis, see H. B. Bruner, et al., *What Our Schools Are Teaching*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941.

lems in each subject field such as the Geography of Our State or the Story of Our Country, and there is little relationship between subjects. Some attempts may be made to relate units in geography and history by having one immediately follow or parallel the other, e.g., a unit on Geography of Our State followed by a unit on History of Our State. The order of the units is followed as given in the course of study, pupil activity is teacher directed, and there is little or no relationship to other areas of the curriculum. The program is usually begun in Grade IV because "the home, family, and community are read about in the primary readers." Evaluation typically consists of a test given after each subject-matter unit.

CORRELATED-SUBJECT UNITS In the social studies program consisting of correlated sub matter units, materials from geography, history, and civics are related and taught in units of work, designed to impart subject matter to children. The scope of the program is defined in terms of the subject matter outlined in the course of study or in the units. Basic themes or generalizations such as adaptation and interdependence may be emphasized. Textbooks and audio visual materials are utilized as they apply to topics in each unit. There is little relationship between the social studies and other areas of the curriculum. Little attention is given to children's needs and problems since the program is largely teacher directed. The program may begin in the primary grades with units on home, school, and community, and continue with studies of other places and peoples in the intermediate grades. Some schools begin the program in Grade III or IV. The geography and history of the various peoples studied are considered in relation to topics in each unit of work. The needs and interests of children are not used to select experiences and materials. Tests are given after or during the unit with considerable attention to facts and information in each correlated unit.

COMPREHENSIVE SOCIAL STUDIES UNITS This approach combines history, geography, civics, and content from other fields into one broad field of study. Attempts are made to relate each unit to other areas or fields of the curriculum. Broad comprehensive units such as the Home, Our Community, and Life in Early America are undertaken. The scope of the program may be defined either in terms of social functions such as transportation, consumption of goods, and conservation or, in some cases, in terms of themes such as adaptation to the environment and interdependence of peoples. Special attention is given to needs and interests of children and to the use of community resources. Cooperative group planning and evaluation are viewed

as significant phases of the program. Other areas of the curriculum such as art, music, and language are drawn upon and used as needed in the study of various problems. Recognition is given to related social learning in group activities on the playground, in the cafeteria, on committees, and in student council. Efforts are made to develop basic social concepts, constructive attitudes, and democratic behavior. Functional applications are made to situations outside the social studies units. Evaluation is cooperative and continuous and includes, in addition to tests, such techniques as group discussion, self-evaluation by children, and informal checklists. This type of program attempts to develop basic concepts needed in democratic living and at the same time gives attention to needs of children. It is a "hybrid" type, bridging the gap between the subject matter approaches and the social-living approach.

SOCIAL LIVING In programs emphasizing a social living approach, the entire school program is viewed as making contributions to social learning. This type of program differs from preceding ones in that subject matter boundaries are not clearly established and maintained. The experiences of children are the point of departure and significant life situations become the core of the program. Cooperative group planning, action, and evaluation are used to further group and individual needs. The program is envisioned as a series of on-going experiences related to needs and problems of children. All areas of the curriculum are drawn upon as needed to solve children's problems and to help them meet basic life situations. School and community projects (safety studies, beautification, gardening, clean up, the school store) are undertaken. Instructional resources of all types are selected to meet specific needs of the group—audio visual materials, textbooks, community resources, tools, construction materials, and the like. Goals are viewed in terms of growth in ability to meet life situations. Democratic behavior is stressed, and social concepts and understandings are developed in situations important to children. Evaluative procedures are related to each child's level of development and use is made of anecdotal records, cooperatively made checklists, and other informal devices as well as tests. Since well rounded growth and development of children is uppermost in mind in all phases of the program, planning, guidance, and evaluation are based upon the studied needs and interests of children.

SEPARATE-SUBJECT VS UNIFIED PROGRAMS

The question immediately arises whether unified programs are more efficient than separate subject programs. Although more evidence is needed on recently developed programs several studies have shown that unified programs are the more effective. Seagoe² studied two Grade VIII classes and found that the class using a unified approach in history and geography was superior in retention and initial learning to the class that used separate materials. Tyler's³ study of unified social studies versus textbook teaching of geography and history showed that the fused approach yielded more learning of related spelling words. An experiment carried out by Collings⁴ over twenty five years ago showed that the children in a fused program were superior in interest, attitudes, and basic skills to children in a separated subject matter program. Oberholtzer⁵ in a study of over two thousand pupils in Grades IV and V reported that students in a half day fused program not only maintained subject skills but also learned more social skills than did children in one daily period of social studies and regular periods on the skills. Reports by Wrightstone⁶ indicate that activity programs bring about improved social learning with no loss in learning of skills and information. Preston⁷ in a summary of nineteen studies concluded that available evidence consistently favors that organization in which the content is unified. It is the judgment of the writer that unified approaches as represented by the comprehensive social studies units and social living approaches are far superior to the other types of social studies programs. Attention is given next, therefore, to ways in which the scope of unified programs may be planned.

² May V. Seagoe, "Qualitative Wholes Classroom Experiments," *Journal of Educational Psychology* 27 612-620 November 1936.

³ K. I. Tyler, "Spelling as Secondary Learning," *Teachers College Contributions to Education* No. 781 New York Teachers College Columbia University 1939.

⁴ Ellsworth Collings, *An Experiment With a Project Curriculum* New York The Macmillan Company 1923.

⁵ E. E. Oberholtzer, *An Integrated Curriculum in Practice* Teachers College Contributions to Education No. 694 New York Teachers College Columbia University 1937.

⁶ J. W. Wrightstone, "Evaluation of the Experiment with the Activity Program in the New York City Elementary Schools," *Journal of Educational Research* 38 252-257 December 1944.

⁷ Ralph C. Preston, "An Appraisal of Fusion of Social Studies in the Elementary School," *Elementary School Journal* 44 202-207 December 1943.

SCOPE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Scope refers to the breadth, comprehensiveness, or the *what* of the program. How broad and inclusive should the program be? What aspects of human living are basic? What elements should be emphasized at each level? These are basic questions because the scope of the program is a prime determiner of the type of experiences that will be developed with children. The scope of the well-planned social studies program is broad enough to acquaint children with the range of human activities that are meaningful to them. Careful selection should be made so that important aspects of living are not overlooked. The breadth of the program should provide for a variety of experiences so that the child's learning will be well rounded and balanced. It should also be possible to draw upon other fields of learning so that significant problems can be considered in the light of their many ramifications. A narrow, compartmentalized program limits social learning. The program must be related to problems and situations that arise in daily living or it will have little significance to children. The program should include aspects of living that can be considered at recurring levels of the child's development so that continuous growth of social understanding is assured. A broad, comprehensive social studies program that provides for continuity and balance is an essential feature of effective organization.

The scope or breadth, of the social studies has been determined in several ways.⁸ Some programs are limited by a basic textbook or series of textbooks and attention is given to only those topics that appear in the textbooks. A few school systems have tried to determine scope by using lists of purposes or aims to establish the comprehensiveness of the program. The difficulty here lies in using a multiplicity of discrete, minute objectives.⁹ Such lists become too unwieldy to handle. In other programs scope has been determined in terms of broad themes or generalizations. Such an approach has all the weaknesses of any logically organized subject matter approach and generally results in a verbalized procedure.¹⁰ Another approach that has been used in a few places is the development study of cultures. Simple cultures are

⁸ For a good over-all discussion see I. James Quillen and Lavone A. Hanna *Education for Social Competence* Chicago Scott, Foresman Company 1948 pp 69-106

⁹ H. L. Caswell and D. S. Campbell *Curriculum Development* New York American Book Company, 1935 pp 151-159

¹⁰ H. L. Caswell, *Education in the Elementary School* New York American Book Company 1942 pp 138-139

studied first, followed by a consideration of more advanced cultures. Here again, this approach may be logical for scholars, but it does not seem to be meaningful to children and frequently results in the development of stereotypes and misconceptions.¹¹ Although the foregoing approaches are inadequate for defining the scope of the social studies, this fact does not mean that textbooks, purposes, generalizations, and studies of other cultures have no place in the program. They do, but other approaches for use in defining the scope of the program appear to be more satisfactory.

SOCIAL FUNCTIONS OR AREAS OF LIVING

Since social studies are concerned with human relationships, they should give attention to the major activities of men, women, and children as they interact with others and their physical environment to meet basic human needs. In many courses of study, therefore, the scope of the social studies is defined in terms of basic social functions, or areas of living, such as the following:

Production	Education
Distribution	Conservation
Transportation	Aesthetic expression
Communication	Religious expression
Government	Recreation

Each of the foregoing is a major activity in all types of culture. As used in defining the scope of the social studies, the social functions suggest major categories that are central in group living and around which both individual and group activities can be organized. Provision can be made for growth in understanding of the social functions throughout the child's school career. This does not mean that each social function should be taught as a unit, although this may be done at certain levels in such units as Transportation and Conservation. Rather, at each grade level and in each unit developed in the program, attention is given to the social functions.

The following outline of social functions from the San Francisco Teaching Guide is illustrative.¹² Six major functions (worded differently from those above) are elaborated and used to plan the breadth of the social studies. The outline below is followed by a list of sug-

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 135-137.

¹² Adapted from *Teaching Guide Social Studies, Kindergarten through Grade Six*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 300, San Francisco Public Schools, pp. 26-30.

gested applications at two grade levels to show how social functions may be used in planning units of work. As you read them, think of practical applications you may make in a unit you are planning.

Protecting Life and Health

- 1 Developing wholesome habits and attitudes for health, safety, recreation
- 2 Utilizing health services in home, school, and community living
- 3 Recognizing the contributions of science and the dangers of mechanized living to health and safety, noting changes due to new methods of transportation and communication
- 4 Recognizing the interdependence of people and communities in matters of health, recognizing the role of the government in protecting life and health

Conserving and Utilizing Resources

- 1 Conserving, controlling, and adjusting to geographic factors
- 2 Utilizing inventions to improve production, transportation, and distribution of goods
- 3 Improving existing natural resources through better conservation practices and wise utilization of resources

Understanding the Relationship between the Individual and Government

- 1 Accepting individual responsibility, and securing, protecting and extending individual rights
- 2 Providing for continuity, providing for needed changes
- 3 Securing representation of interests, securing and utilizing leadership, making laws, delegating authority, maintaining checks and balances, securing maximum service

Understanding the Role of Education

- 1 Educational opportunities in home, school, and community
- 2 Recognizing the possibilities, limitations, and dangers of mass communication through radio, TV, press, and motion pictures
- 3 Utilizing educational opportunities, contributions of research, and accumulated knowledge

Providing for Aesthetic Expression

- 1 Maintaining and providing beauty in our homes, schools, communities, state, country, and other places
- 2 Recognizing, utilizing, and appreciating aesthetic qualities in objects and persons, appreciating contributions of others, noting aesthetic factors in industry
- 3 Participating in aesthetic enterprises and developing aesthetic forms of personal expression.

Providing for Religious Expression

- 1 Maintaining freedom of worship, friendly relations with others, and respect for other religious groups
- 2 Recognizing the importance of moral and spiritual values in daily living, the significance of religious holidays and the influence of religion on great leaders
- 3 Participating in altruistic activities, religious activities, and service-welfare activities

The social functions must be applied specifically as plans are made for a given group of children in a particular community. The following example¹³ illustrates such an application in Grade I in which Home and School are emphasized.

Protecting Life in Home and School

- 1 How mothers, fathers, doctors, and nurses provide for health, safety, and recreation
- 2 What children can do at home, school, and in the community to promote health and safety, proper care of pets, gardens, plants, aquaria
- 3 Health and safety in the classroom cafeteria, playground, neighborhood, meeting emergencies such as fire, injury, illness, or being lost

Conserving and Utilizing the Physical Environment of Home and School

- 1 Kinds of homes, use of materials in homes, heat and light in homes.
- 2 How birds, animals, insects and plants live, how to protect them
- 3 How food is secured, how clothing is secured from wool, cotton, and other materials, making and conserving clothing at home by sewing, knitting, darning, using devices such as refrigerators, telephones, radios to improve living in our homes, transportation by means of bus, car, streetcar, airplane

Understanding the Relationship between the Individual and Government

- 1 Responsibilities of members of the family
- 2 How our school is operated, responsibilities of children, teachers, others, making and following rules together
- 3 Honoring our country and our flag, recognizing our national anthem

Understanding the Role of Education in Home and School

- 1 Why we come to school, how home and school work together, how to use school services, how to be helpful at school
- 2 How we can improve our work, how to show regard for others

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 69-76

Grade V The United States Colonial Life on the Eastern Seaboard, the Westward Movement and Pioneer Life

Grade VI The Western Hemisphere Life Study of Mexico, Canada, Other American Republics, Transportation (emphasis upon aviation), Communication (emphasis upon history of records)

Grade VII The Eastern Hemisphere Middle East, Egypt, Greece, Rome, and Western Europe (emphasis upon contributions), Far East, Australia, Islands of the Pacific (emphasis upon contrasts), Modern Community Life, Conservation of Natural Resources

Grade VIII United States History, Geography, Civics Growth of American Democracy, the Constitution, Effects of Industrial Revolution, Relationships with Other Nations, Influence of Great Americans and Documents, Significance of Geographical Features

PENNSYLVANIA

Grade I Home and School Our Homes and How We Live in Them, How We Go To and From School and What We See on the Way, How We Enjoy our Pets, Our School and How We Live in It, Holidays and Special Days

Grade II Our Community Workers in Our Community, Roads Out of Our Community and What We See There, How Our Farm Neighbors Help Others, Holidays and Special Days

Grade III Broader Community The Everyday Things About Us (emphasis upon science), Where the People in Our Community Work and What They Do, How People Learn What Other People Are Doing and Thinking (communication), How Man Uses Water and How It Affects Him, The Indians Who Lived Here Before Us, Holidays and Special Days

Grade IV Our Community as Part of State, Nation, World How People Live and Work in Our County, How People Live and Work In Our State, How Plants and Animals Help or Harm Each Other, How People Live and Work in Other Lands (Fisherman in Northern Lands, Netherlands Switzerland, Mediterranean Lands, Hot Rainy Lands, Australia, Desert Peoples, Explorers in Polar Lands), Holidays and Special Days.

Grade V United States Great Inventions that Have Helped Our Country Grow, How Trade and Travel Lead to Discovery and Exploration The Northeastern Part of Our Country The New South, The Agricultural Interior, Western States Parts of Our Nation That May Some-time Become States Our Common Interests With Canada, Holidays and Special Days.

Grade VI Latin America. Our Nearest Neighbors to the South (Mexico, Central America, Caribbean Lands, West Indies, Venezuela, The

Guianas, Colombia, Andean Countries, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, Plata River Countries, Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, Our Largest Southern Neighbor—Brazil), Transportation in the Americas, Growth of American Institutions (in both North and South America), Holidays and Special Days.

NEW YORK STATE

Kindergarten, Grades I and II Neighborhood Studies Living in Home and School, Living in the Neighborhood, Living on the Farm, Holidays

Grades III and IV Studies of Communities Ways of Living in Our Community Today, Ways of Living in Our Community in Early Days, Ways of Living in Our Community in Indian Times, Ways of Living in Other Parts of the World, Holidays

Grades V and VI Regional Studies United States, Canada, Mexico, Europe, South America, Africa, and Asia (comparison with regions in U.S.), Holidays, Famous People

Grades VII and VIII Community Life, Our American Heritage

CINCINNATI

Kindergarten Home and School Living A Playhouse, School Helpers, Lunch at School, Neighborhood Friends, Away We Go, Animal Babies, Summer Fun, Holidays and Festivals, Community and School Enterprises (The last three are recurring emphases in following grades.)

Grade I Home, School, Neighborhood Home and Family, Living at School, Neighborhood Helpers (Policeman, Fireman, Storekeeper, Helpers Who Come to Our House), the Farm, Things that Go on Land

Grade II Community Living Workers (Librarian, Post Office Worker, Health Worker, Social Worker, Carpenter, Construction and Maintenance, Street Cleaner, Others), Our Food (Market and Store, Dairy and Bakery, Garden and Greenhouse), Air Travel, the Circus

Grade III Broader Community Living The Local Community (as a part of Cincinnati), Where Our Food Comes From, Clothing, Man's Dwellings, Communication, Boats and Harbors, American Indians, The Zoo, Good Americans

Grade IV Ways of Living in Many Lands Orientation Unit, How We Travel Today, China, Mexico, Switzerland, The Congo, Holland, The Far North, The Sahara

Grade V. The U.S., Today and Yesterday Orientation Unit on Food for Cincinnati or Places I Know in the U.S., Finding the New World, Eastern United States, The Ohio Valley, The South (or Clothes We Wear as optional unit), Our Great West.

Grade VI Europe Today and How It Came to Be Life in Prehis-

toric Times, Mediterranean Lands, Central Europe (Middle Ages, and One Country Today, such as France), British Isles, U.S.S.R.

DENVER

Kindergarten Social Living

Grade I Living In Our School, Family, Pets, Other Places (We Have Been, Friends Have Been, etc.), Living Things, Out of Doors, Toys (optional)

Grade II Our Community, Communication In Everyday Living, The World Through Our Five Senses, Water (optional)

Grade III Living in Denver, Money, Learning About Plants, Animals Near and Far

Grade IV Ways of Living—Then and Now, Physical Forces That Work for Man, Transportation The Earth—How It Was Formed and How It Changes (optional), Ancient Plants and Animals (optional)

Grade V How Our Country Began, United States Today, How Chemical Changes Affect Our Everyday Living

Grade VI World Geography and People of the Western Hemisphere, Communication, Astronomy, Preparing For Junior High School

Grade VII Patterns of Culture How Did Early Man Develop? What Were Some of the Contributions of Past Civilizations? What Contributions Were Made by People Who Lived in Europe During the Middle Ages? How Do People of the Eastern Hemisphere Live Today?

Grade VIII Our Heritage How Did Europeans Discover and Explore a New World? Why Did People from Different Lands Come to America? How Did the Colonies Achieve Independence from Britain? How Did the New Nation Form a Union? How Did Democracy and Patriotism Develop in the 1800's? How Did the United States Acquire and Settle the Great West? How Did Internal Conflict Help to Confirm the Union? How Did Industrial Expansion Effect Changes in Living in the United States? What Is the Role of the United States in Today's Interdependent World? (optional)

LOS ANGELES COUNTY, CALIFORNIA

Kindergarten How We Live and Work Together How We Live Together at Home, How We Work Together at School, What Our Neighborhood Is Like, Workers Who Help Us at Home, at School, and in the Neighborhood

Grade I How Home, School, and Neighborhood Help Us Meet Our Needs How the School Helps Meet Needs, How the Family Helps Meet Needs, What Our Neighborhood is Like, How Workers in Our Neighborhood Help Us Meet Our Needs

Grade II How People Live and Work in Our Neighborhood How People Live in Our Neighborhood, How People Provide for Their Needs for Food, Clothing, Shelter, How People Meet Their Health and Safety Needs

Grade III How People in Communities Depend upon One Another How People Work Together to Provide Services, What Our Community Is Like, How Our Community Is Related to Other Communities, What Makes for Good Living in Our Community

Grade IV How People Live in California How Ways of Living Differ in Various California Communities, How People in California Produce, Process, and Distribute Goods, How Life in California Continues to Change What Our State Is Like Today

Grade V How People Live in Our Country Why People Are Moving to Our Region, How the Movement of People in Our Country Began, How Our Country Was Discovered and Settled, What Our Country Is Like Today

Grade VI How People Live in the Western Hemisphere How Certain Countries in the Western Hemisphere Developed How All Countries in the Western Hemisphere Are Interrelated, How the Western Hemisphere Is Related to the World, How Our Country is Associated with Its Immediate Neighbors

Grade VII How People Live in the Eastern Hemisphere What the Eastern Hemisphere Is Like, How Life in Certain Countries of the Eastern Hemisphere Compares with Life in Our Country, How All Countries of the World are Interrelated

Grade VIII How Our Country Fosters the Democratic Way of Life How People Meet Their Needs through Participating in Groups, How Our Government Reflects Our Democratic Values, How Our American Heritage Continues to Grow, How Our Ways of Governing Compare with Other Ways of Governing

LEGAL PROVISIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

There are many legal requirements in the various states related to the educational program. This has been true from early times because of the keen interest of the citizenry in education. Many of these requirements have a direct bearing upon the social studies program. For example, most states have specific legal provisions regarding instruction in civics, history, the Constitution, observance of special holidays, display of the flag, patriotism, and similar matters directly related to the social studies. Some states have provisions relating to geography, celebrations, special events, content of textbooks, time allotments, loyalty oaths, and the like. All in all, forty-four states re-

quire (elementary school) instruction in the Constitution, thirty-four require instruction in United States history, thirty-four require instruction in the state constitution, and twenty eight require instruction in state history.²⁰ In addition to state requirements are the regulations of state and local school departments. Many of these extend and implement state laws.

What type of legal requirements should be placed in the laws of a state? In general, it is sound procedure to leave specific, detailed prescriptions out of state laws. Requirements that refer to time allotments, methods, grade placement, and the like should be left to school authorities. There is nothing wrong, however, with legal provisions that emphasize objectives such as loyalty to democratic ideals, understanding the Constitution, and appreciation of United States history. But provisions that go beyond a statement of objectives should not be established in law, since it is the professional responsibility of school workers to select ways and means of achieving objectives. In any event the teacher's responsibility is to carry out the intent and purpose of such regulations to the best of his ability. A careful check should be made of existing provisions, these may be found in the school code, summaries of provisions published by state departments of education, in curriculum guides, or in the school register of enrollment and attendance. Specific suggestions for meeting existing requirements should be included in each curriculum guide. If any provisions are detrimental to the development of an adequate school program, they should be called to the attention of the proper authorities so that appropriate changes may be made.

DEVELOPING AN EFFECTIVE PROGRAM

Let us now consider basic principles that have been used in setting up social studies programs, bearing in mind that no program should be viewed as a static, unchanging entity. Outstanding programs can remain so only if teachers and other school workers engage in cooperative efforts to change them in accordance with children's needs, newer developments in education, and changing conditions in the community.

An over-all framework or pattern of organization is needed to guide the selection of learning experiences. Past experience has indicated that the unplanned curriculum is wasteful of both the teacher's

²⁰ The material in this section is adapted from Ward W. Kesecker, *Education for Freedom*, Bulletin No. 11, Washington, D.C., U.S. Office of Education, 1948.

and the children's time and energy. At the other extreme is the rigidly planned program which leads to the neglect of children's needs and failure to adapt to community conditions. A desirable situation appears to be one in which a framework is set up and teachers select units within the framework, making adaptations to meet children's problems and needs as they arise. Such a pattern of organization should be developed in accordance with the following basic principles:

The social studies program should be based upon a cooperatively developed point of view. The teacher's values and beliefs actually determine the kind and quality of experience that will be developed with children. For example, if the teachers in a given school system believe in the development of rich experiences through units, the program will probably be developed accordingly. If the teachers do not believe in the use of the unit system, the best pattern of unit organization that can be developed will not bring about the kind of program desired by the curriculum builders. The teachers themselves, therefore, must share in designing the program and revising it in the light of newer developments and needed changes. They must have opportunities to participate in developing the point of view essential to effective utilization of the framework. In developing a point of view, attention should be given to democratic values, child growth and development, and cultural changes. The unique goals of the social studies should be defined and the pattern of organization should be designed to achieve the goals. Changes in the curriculum can result only if there are changes in the behavior of teachers.²¹

The actual plan or organization—the framework—should be developed cooperatively by school workers in consultation with resource experts. Working as a group with consultants, it is possible to design a program that is understood, accepted, and geared to the developmental needs and characteristics of children in a democratic society. The pooling of ideas and sharing of points of view lead to the design of a more workable framework.

In sharp contrast is the individualistic approach, with each teacher working alone, which results in a hodgepodge of experiences for children. In such laissez-faire programs continuity is lacking, repetition and duplication abound, and growth in a consistent manner is neglected. Cooperative group planning is the best way to achieve an effective social studies program.

The program should be related to community living. The child's

²¹ George Sharp, *Curriculum Development as Re Education of the Teacher*, New York Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952.

community is a vital laboratory of learning. Out of the experiences which children have in their communities come the meanings and concepts that enable them to explore an ever-widening environment. The customs, mores, and values of the community condition the program. Community needs and problems of significance to children become an important part of the curriculum; examples are safety, recreation, transportation, health, industries, and conservation. Changing conditions in the community call for changes in the program. Instructional resources found in the community can be used to enrich social learning. The work of other agencies in the community must also be recognized and related to school experiences when necessary. Ideally, the school-community program of living and learning should move along smoothly and cooperatively, with planning broadly based so that mutual understanding exists regarding basic responsibilities for the development of children.

The scope or range of learnings in the social studies program should:

- (1) Be comprehensive—provide for social learning as broad as the range of human experiences that are meaningful to children.
- (2) Be balanced—various aspects of human relationships should be treated in a balanced manner.
- (3) Relate to daily living—provide opportunities to meet children's needs and problems in school, community, and the ever-widening environment.
- (4) Promote continuity of learning—provide for recurring emphases as the child grows and develops.
- (5) Draw upon other fields—enable the teacher or group to use content from any field in order to engage in effective problem solving in the social studies.

A good framework provides for continuity of learning. Basic concepts, attitudes, problem-solving skills, and other social learnings are broadened and deepened each year as the child grows and develops. Developing strands of meaning should run through the program from the first experiences in school to the last. Each unit selected for a given group should be related to preceding ones and lead to other rich experiences. Through group planning as the unit develops in the classroom, sequences within each separate unit can be developed. This is a basic point because the curriculum actually becomes a dynamic reality as experiences are developed in the classroom with children. It is only when content and materials are understood and used by

children in situations that are meaningful to them that real learning takes place Psychologically, continuity of experience develops within the child as he relates one experience to the next and uses concepts learned in one situation to meet other situations Steps must be taken to guide children to build strands of meaning that grow as new experiences are developed This can be accomplished only if the teacher uses effective group processes, techniques to meet individual needs as well as a variety of resources and evaluative devices and understands the growth and development of children The pattern of organization should contribute to continuity of learning, not detract from it

In planning and evaluating the sequence of a given program, questions such as the following should be raised

- 1 Is the sequence related to the maturity of children at various levels and to their past experiences?
- 2 Do the suggested experiences at each level lead on to broader and deeper experiences? Do they promote continuity of learning?
- 3 Does the sequence permit adaptations to community conditions and to the needs of children?
- 4 Are suggested units feasible and practical in terms of children's needs, teachers' backgrounds, and available instructional resources?

Latitude should be left in the pattern of organization for cooperative group planning under teacher guidance Detailed prescriptions which prevent group planning should not be included in the framework This is essential because the needs and characteristics of individuals and groups vary from class to class Furthermore many vital social learnings grow out of group planning The teacher working with a given group is in a position to develop the experiences suggested in the framework Freedom to do this so that individual and group needs can be met, is an essential element in the design of the program

The experiences and subject matter content in the framework should be those which are essential in democratic living Provision should be made for the development of an understanding of democratic values and processes as the developing child experiences them in daily living in home, school, community, and his ever widening environment Group processes involving cooperative problem solving should be inherent in each suggested unit so that democratic planning, group action, and evaluation are developed to increasingly higher levels of effectiveness Life situations confronting children as they

interact with their social and physical environment must be included. The value of the framework can be measured in terms of the extent to which it serves as a helpful guideline for teachers to use in the development of democratic behavior, the proposed experiences and content must reflect this basic consideration.

The experiences and content most useful for developing democratic citizenship should be selected from the rich heritage of experience that has been developed by man. The old idea that any content will do so long as children are happily at work overlooks the dynamic changes taking place in our society, dodges the reality of community conditions, and neglects the situations that are vital in democratic living. Content must be selected which bears upon the vital, significant problems defined in the framework and considered in cooperative group planning. Content selected and used with a given group should

- 1 Be understandable, interesting, and significant to the group
- 2 Be used in the group's work upon significant problems
- 3 Lead to the development of basic concepts of importance in many situations
- 4 Be useful in school and community experiences
- 5 Be drawn from any area so long as it is needed in the solution of significant problems
- 6 Contribute to increasing effectiveness in problem solving

The experiences, content, and materials needed to develop the program should be organized as units. By unit is meant a series of suggestive experiences, content, and materials related to a particular topic and designed to develop understandings, attitudes, skills, and appreciations. The use of units appears to be the most effective way to organize and develop learning experiences for children. Problems of significance to children should be included together with the related activities and materials needed to solve them. Content from different fields of learning can be drawn upon and related to each problem. The sequence of units can be paced to the level of maturity of children. The teacher can draw upon the proposed units and make adaptations to the needs of the group thus assuring flexibility of use. New materials are easily incorporated. Revisions can and should be made in the light of evaluation by the teachers and their groups.

The organization of the program should be flexible and subject to revision. It is essential that flexibility be provided so that teachers can make adaptations to the needs of children. New developments in education and changes in community conditions should be reflected

in the program as they arise. Experimentation should be carried out to appraise the value of new proposals, and to determine whether they should be incorporated in the program. Systematic attention should be given to continuous revision so that the program can be kept up-to date.

The pattern of organization should be designed with reference to the developmental growth characteristics and needs of children. The content, experiences, and materials needed for units at each level should be appropriate for children at that level. Each unit should be related to the past experiences of children. Vital life situations should be discovered and included in the program. The timing of experiences should be attuned to the group's readiness for social experiences so that rich social learning is possible. Important, too, are individual abilities and interests, which need attention in all phases of planning, from the designing of the program through the development of experiences in the classroom. Emphasis upon group needs and processes should not lead to a neglect of the individual, since any program that is to be effective must recognize the importance of both individual and group needs. Because of the importance of relating child growth characteristics to the social studies program, organization and development, the next chapter is devoted to child development and related implications.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss advantages and disadvantages of the various types of programs presented in the first part of this chapter. How might a group of school workers move from one type to another, i.e., from textbook or separate subject type to comprehensive units or social living? What materials, professional advice, and types of meetings and conferences would be necessary?
2. Discuss the various ways in which the scope of the social studies may be defined. Which do you believe to be the most functional in your situation? Give reasons for your choice.
3. Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the sample programs presented in this chapter to illustrate sequences of units. Which do you prefer? Give reasons for your choice. Are there modifications or changes that you believe should be made in them?
4. Obtain a local or state curriculum guide and check it for the following:
 - a. What type of social studies program is recommended—separate subject, comprehensive units, etc?

- b How is the scope of the social studies defined?
- c In what ways is the sequence of units similar to those presented in this chapter? How is it different?
- d Are legal provisions clearly outlined and met? (If not, determine what they are by checking the attendance register or other available source)
- e What suggestions are made for observance of holidays, special events, and special weeks?

5 Review a unit of work of your choice in terms of the social functions presented in this chapter. Outline specific ways in which the unit may contribute to an understanding of the social functions. Check your outline with others who are interested in the same, or a related, unit of work.

6 Outline ways in which the life situations presented in this chapter may be made a part of a unit work of your choice. Check your outline with others.

7 Outline ways in which other areas of the curriculum may be drawn upon and used in a unit of work you are planning to teach. Refer to the sample units in the Appendix for suggestions.

8 Discuss the principles presented at the end of this chapter regarding the development of an effective pattern of organization. Which do you feel are most frequently neglected? Which are most difficult to use? In what ways can you as a teacher work to develop an effective pattern or framework?

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CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A significant phase of educational planning is that of relating learning in various areas of the curriculum to the growth and development of children. This aspect of educational planning has been given great impetus during the past few years and is currently reflected in courses of study, in yearbooks, and in the writings of educational authorities.¹ The primary purpose of this movement has been to develop programs of instruction that are geared to the developmental characteristics and needs of children, and that contribute maximally to the wholesome growth and development of each child.

DEVELOPMENTAL GROWTH CHARACTERISTICS

Child growth characteristics may be used as a frame of reference for studying a given group and individuals within the group. Since each child has his own growth pattern, emphasis must be given to specific study of each individual, and not exclusively to general principles of development. Definite sequences of growth, such as talking, reading, and writing may be expected, but rate of growth will vary for different individuals since each child has his own developmental pattern. No specific ages can be given for the emergence of certain characteristics in children. Averages or norms are meaningful only as they are used to study individual variations and to interpret the behavior of children in a given situation.

There are some dangers in enumerating growth characteristics

¹ For example, see A. T. Jersild and Associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum*, New York Teachers College, 1946, and Ruth Ellsworth, "Contributions from Recent Research about Children and Society Which the Schools Can Use," *Social Studies for Older Children*, Washington, D.C. National Council for the Social Studies, National Education Association, 1953, pp. 34-44.

which should be considered. First of all, each child has his own developmental pattern and there is real danger that individual differences will be neglected. A second pitfall is viewing each level as a separate stage of development instead of recognizing that growth is continuous and gradual. The selected growth characteristics described in the following section overlap, and the rates at which different children develop them vary considerably. Thirdly, it must be recognized that research information about child development is incomplete and that available knowledge is suggestive, not definitive, in its implications. Fourthly, the children within a given class must be studied by the teacher to determine the levels of development in the class and to enable him to design learning experiences in accord with them. The assumption that the individuals in a given group fit a general pattern should never be made.

With these cautions in mind, attention is next turned to selected growth characteristics of children and specific implications for the social studies program. Major consideration is given to the characteristics of children between the ages of five and thirteen. Specific implications are made in terms of primary, intermediate, and upper grade levels. Obviously, because of individual differences much overlapping does exist, and this fact should be recognized as this statement is read. In order to round out the discussion, a brief introductory statement on the preschool child has been included.

SELECTED GROWTH CHARACTERISTICS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Before entering school, the child develops in a variety of ways as a result of experiences in his home and neighborhood. He acquires many physical skills, such as walking, running, jumping and handling objects and materials. He learns how to feed himself, to dress himself, to use simple tools such as a hammer or scissors, and to make simple objects to use in play. Hand preference becomes marked between three and five years and many children resist attempts to change handedness on entering school.

Language and mental development show marked changes during the preschool years.² From a beginning characterized by random gestures and vocalization, the child learns to use sentences of three or

² Dorothea McCarthy, "Language Development in Children," *Manual of Child Psychology*, 2nd ed. (Leonard Carmichael Ed.) New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1954, pp. 497-630.



Berkeley

How can an experience such as this be used to help children meet developmental tasks? Can you think of other social experiences that might be used?

four words by age three, and six to eight words by age eight. He possesses a speaking vocabulary of around 2500 words³ on entering school, and a larger understanding vocabulary.⁴

Social and emotional development are greatly affected by home conditions.⁵ Patterns of behavior learned in the home and neighborhood may be expected to appear in school. Negativism and resistance to adult suggestions typically pass a peak at approximately two and a half to three years of age, and a desire to get along with others begins to emerge. Emotions are expressed in crying, pouting, temper tantrums, withdrawing, and the like, they occur in response to both words and situations. Make-believe play is a major activity. Identification of self with a group is beginning and play is in process of

³ Madora E. Smith, "An Investigation of the Development of the Sentence and the Extent of Vocabulary in Young Children," *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, No. 5, 1926.

⁴ Mary K. Smith, "Measurement of the Size of General English Vocabulary through Elementary Grades and High School," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 24: 311-345, 1941.

⁵ For a thorough analysis, see J. H. S. Russell, *The Growth of Child Development*, New York: Harper & Brothers, 195.

moving from a self-centered to a social basis. Friendships and the beginning of first-level cooperation are in evidence in parallel play.

Preschool children also face certain developmental tasks—demands or requirements set by society in general and by the home in particular. These tasks may be referred to as special problems of learning activities which each child should meet successfully if he is to achieve wholesome adjustment. Thus preschool children are expected to learn to walk, eat, talk, control bodily wastes, and recognize sex differences and sexual modesty. They are also expected to make a fairly good adjustment to members of the family and to age mates, learn differences between right and wrong in everyday situations, and form simple concepts of objects and persons in their immediate environment. Progress toward the meeting of tasks such as the foregoing varies widely among children in a given group. Individual differences must be expected and accommodated as children enter school.

PRIMARY LEVEL

During their first experiences in school, children are eager to move around, to explore their environment, to engage in physical activity, to handle objects and materials, and to engage in individual and small group activities. Primary school children are curious about things in the immediate environment and like to hear, see, smell, taste, and touch them. They explore the neighborhood and community with keen interest as they mature and gain increasing independence. Their hands seem to "get into everything," and they spend seemingly limitless energy in continuous physical activity, dramatic play, bodily movement, talking, experimenting, and making simple objects. At first such activities are carried on as ends in themselves, later, they are carried on to achieve purposes set up by the group.

Physical growth is slower than in the preschool period but plays a large role in the child's development. The small muscles in hands and fingers are not so fully developed as the large muscles of the

arms and legs. Fine and detailed writing, drawing, sewing, and construction are difficult and should not be used in the social studies as eye-hand coordination is not highly developed. Most children are far-sighted until they are around eight years of age, and should not read fine print or engage in activities requiring close vision.

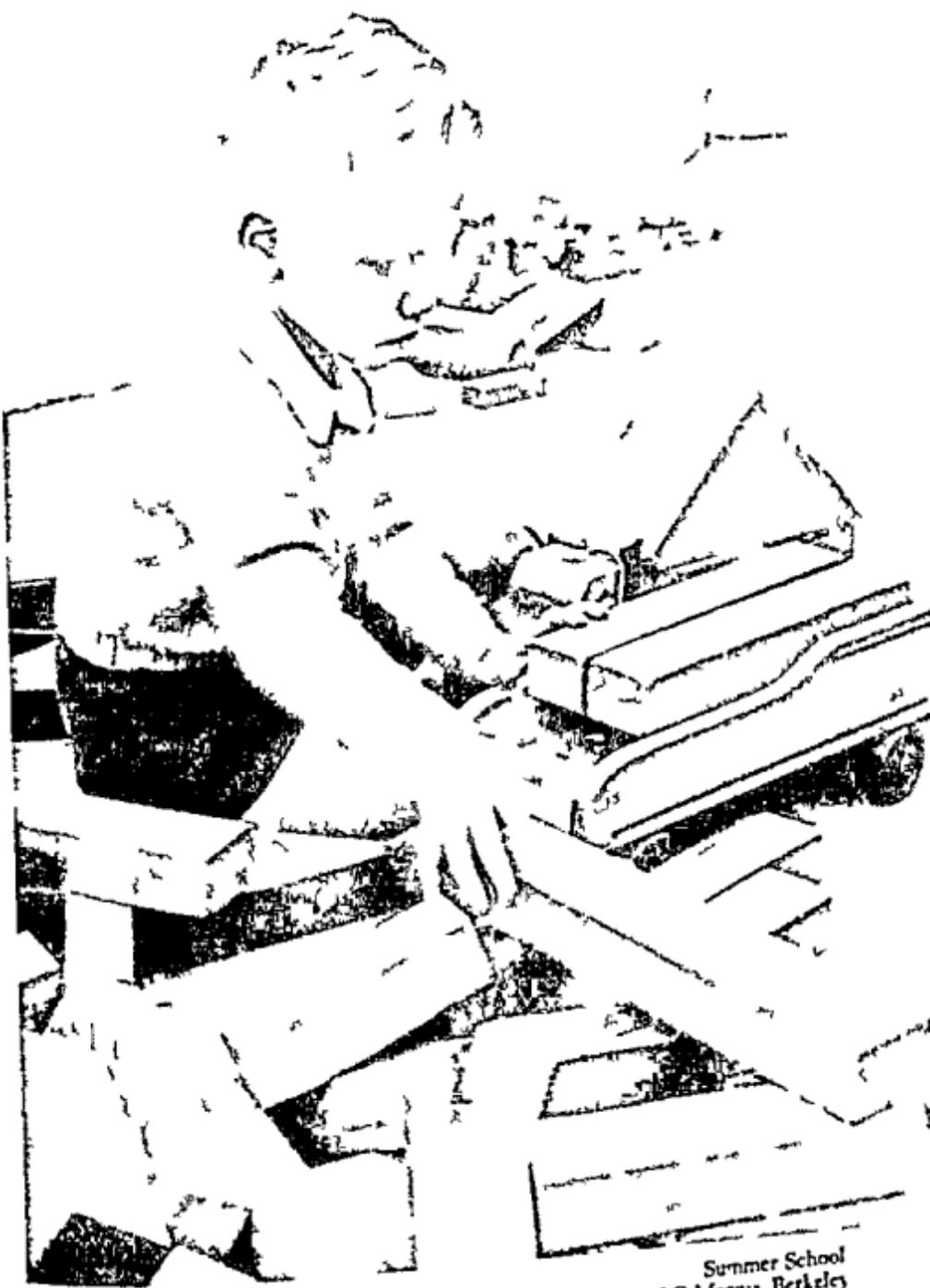
The attention span of children entering school is relatively short, varying with interest and ability. At first their interests center in immediate ends, the here and now, and in matters related directly to their own problems, as they mature, their interests expand beyond the immediate environment to include the broader community and the problems of others. They ask many questions about the things around them with *what* questions being most frequent, and the number of *why* and *how* questions involving causal relations increasing as they gain in experience.⁹ Concepts of time and space are undeveloped and they are unable to grasp ideas that are far removed from their environment, or are abstract in nature.¹⁰ Some confusions and misconceptions are likely to arise regarding various aspects of home and community life, possessions of others, when and how events took place, and the meaning and applications of group standards; these will decrease as children gain in experience and as attention is given to them in the school program. Make-believe is evident in play, in tales told in class, and in discussion. Reasoning ability is present and manifests itself in questions, comments, play, manipulation of materials, construction, problem solving, and discussion. Interpretations are given frequently from a personal viewpoint rather than from the point of view of society in general, and both reality and imagination may be mixed together.

Language patterns are those of the family and playmates. Vocabulary is factual, specific, and related to real experiences, not to generalities. Misconceptions are in evidence and should be noted by the teacher and corrected through carefully planned experiences.¹¹ Two-way communication involving careful listening and related response

⁹ Jean M. Deutsche, *The Development of Children's Concepts of Causal Relations* Minneapolis University of Minnesota Press, 1937

¹⁰ Louise B. Ames, "The Development of the Sense of Time in the Young Child," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 68 97-125, 1946, K. C. Friedman, "Time Concepts of Elementary Children," *Elementary School Journal*, 44 337-42, 1944, Joy M. Lacey, *Social Studies Concepts of Children in the First Three Grades* New York Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932, and Kathryn A. Probst, "A General Information Test for Kindergarten Children," *Child Development*, 2 82-86, June, 1931

¹¹ Lacey, *op. cit.*, and Faith W. Smutter, "Relating the Curriculum to Child Growth and Development," *The Principal and Curriculum Building* (John U. Michaelis, Ed.), Twentieth Yearbook, California Elementary Principals Association Oakland The Association, 1948, p. 26



The young child needs large manipulative materials to meet his needs for physical activity. What other materials might be used?

Summer School
University of California, Berkeley

develops gradually with first efforts at communication with others, and is the spontaneous expression of those things in which the child is interested. "Get out of the way," "Let's load the boat," "Here comes my truck," "See my plane," "Where's the hammer?" and "Move over!" are illustrative of comments made by five- and six-year-olds in social studies situations.

On first entering school, children play and work with others to satisfy personal desires, such as using another child's blocks, getting recognition, or sharing materials; they stop or withdraw if no satisfaction is secured. Groups are small and shift rapidly, usually involving two or three and increasing to six or eight or so as group action skills are acquired.¹² Friends are selected because of propinquity and objects they may share, and without reference to sex or social status unless pressure is brought to bear by parents. Minor quarrels, show of temper, crying, and occasional hitting of others are to be expected, with boys using physical force more frequently than girls, although resort to physical force to achieve one's ends decreases as children gain experience in working and playing with others. Criticism of self is uncommon and most children are willing to show pictures and perform in front of the others. Some children seek status and approval in their efforts to outdo others by making a "better boat," or doing things "better than he did." However, there is some shifting from self-centeredness to group concerns as cooperative experiences are provided. In general, children at the primary level like to show adults that they are "growing up" and are eager to secure adult approval; some will need help in learning positive ways to gain approval.

There is steady growth in social skills throughout the primary grades. Children in Grade II consolidate many of the social learnings resulting from first experiences in school.¹³ Group planning, discussion, action, and evaluation are more effective and to the point. Discussion periods are longer and group evaluation is more pointed in terms of "things to do" to get a given job done. Yet, periods of concentrated discussion and planning will rarely exceed ten to fifteen minutes. Units of work may extend over a period of several weeks, depending upon availability of materials, variety of activities, and maturity and interests of the children.¹⁴ Yet, care must be taken not

¹² For a detailed discussion of development of social behavior see A. T. Jersild, *Child Psychology*, 4th ed. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954, pp. 177-298.

¹³ Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, *op. cit.* For an intensive study of seven-year-olds see Barbara Biber, *et al.*, *Child Life in School. A Study of a Seven-Year-Old Group in School* New York: E. P. Dutton, 1942.

¹⁴ Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, *op. cit.*

to continue a unit to the point where social learning diminishes and the interest of children declines. Their dramatic play and rhythms still possess spontaneity and zest, but are becoming more patterned as children attempt to add realism and more detail in such sequences of action as going to the farm, loading, coming to town, and unloading trucks at the market.

Many eight-year-olds develop some new characteristics which differentiate them from six- and seven year olds. Individual differences continue to increase. Visual fusion is more stable and reading ability is increasing rapidly. Attention and interest spans are longer, energy output is greater, and more attention is given to detail in construction and art work. Group action skills are improving, and identification with group planning and evaluating is more complete than in former years.¹⁵ Important growth trends include increasing ability to differentiate between reality and fantasy, growing language skills, more effective use of past experience, and increasing interest that extends outward from the immediate community to wider areas of experience.¹⁶

Throughout the primary level and on into the intermediate and upper level, children face several new developmental tasks.¹⁷ Steady growth is expected in developing language and number skills while some attitudes toward oneself and toward others, and concepts necessary for daily living. Each child is faced with such tasks as learning the skills involved in various games, getting along with one's age mates, and accepting an appropriate sex role in various situations. In addition, society sets the task of developing a conscience, a scale of values, and a moral code. All of these should be viewed as a "growing and developing" in nature not as demands by society which can be met successfully in a set period of time. Yet the fact must be recognized that when children do not meet developmental tasks successfully, their socialization is retarded and they do not develop feelings of security and *belonging*.

The development of positive attitudes needs special mention. It has been shown that the verbal expression of negative attitudes (prejudices) begins early in some communities.¹⁸ Children in Kindergarten and Grade I have been found to express a dislike for members of various minority groups. Their attitudes toward others begin to de-

¹⁵ Smitter *op. cit.* p. 27

¹⁶ Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies *op. cit.*

¹⁷ Havighurst *op. cit.*

¹⁸ C. B. Stendler and W. E. Martin *Intergroup Education in the Primary Grades*

New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp. 6-18.



Los Al

First level cooperation may be seen in parallel play and in partner activities

velop and to be expressed as they differentiate particular persons and groups from those with which they are familiar

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES Several basic guidelines stem from the growth characteristics of children in the primary grades. These relate to both procedures and content, as shown in the following summary.

1 Social experiences for beginners in school must be related to their short attention span, short term and spontaneous interests, incessant physical activity, curiosity, desire to manipulate and handle things, and limited ability for cooperative work. Variable and short-term interests running from a day or two to a week or so should be utilized, rather than sustained units of work. Typical centers of interest in Kindergarten and Grade I are the playhouse, store, school, fire station, filling station, pets, trucks, and similar aspects of the immediate environment. At intervals throughout the year these may be returned to, and developed to higher levels.

2 Blocks, toys, manipulative materials, large illustrative materials, simple construction, clay work and freedom in rhythms, dramatic play, discussion, conversation, and physical activity are essential.

3 The daily program should provide for physical activity and rest, freedom of choice in various centers of interest, freedom of movement, sharing and telling, and varied experiencing.¹⁹ Boys and girls should work and play together, but care should be taken not to place boys in unfavorable competition with girls, who, in general, are more mature.²⁰

4 Individual, parallel, and small group play require teacher guidance toward more cooperative relationships. Groups at centers of interest should be small at first, involving two or three and increasing to five or six as children grow in group action skills. Dramatic representation or play is a major method of learning and should be observed carefully by the teacher in order to discover needs, problems, and evidences of growth.²¹

5 Informal group evaluation in response to specific needs, short discussions involving sharing of materials brought from home, and telling about personal experiences are essential first steps in developing effective group processes.

6 After children make first adjustments to life in school they can be guided into more sustained activities, and larger groups of

¹⁹ Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, *op. cit.*

²⁰ Smitter *op. cit.*, p. 27

²¹ Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies *op. cit.*

children may become involved in a given enterprise and carry it on over a somewhat longer period of time. For example, group sharing and discussion, dramatic play centering in the playhouse, play with blocks, and construction of simple objects may be centered upon the same ideas or topic for several days. Increased experience makes it possible to provide short term units on home, school, and neighborhood. Emphasis should be given to ways in which members of the family, boys and girls in school, and people in the neighborhood play, work, and live together. Situations of interest and concern to the group should be given central consideration.

7 Concepts must be related to the here and now, and clearly tied to concrete experiences throughout the primary grades. Firsthand experiences are prerequisite to and should parallel vicarious experiences involving the use of such materials as pictures, objects, films, books, and stories. Inadequacy of concepts and uses of concepts should be noted as children engage in discussion, dramatic play, and related activities.

8 Improved muscular coordination of seven- and eight-year-olds makes possible construction and drawing with a little more detail, yet too specialized and refined work in art and construction is inappropriate. Because physical endurance is increasing and attention-interest span is greater, work periods and dramatic play increase in length and include the use of more materials. Improving skill in reading, oral and written language, and numbers makes possible more effective sharing of ideas and improvement in problem solving ability. Pictures, group-dictated stories, and simple charts should still be used to summarize experiences and extend concepts.

9 Various aspects of community living may be explored with success in Grade II. Typical units in which seven year-olds are greatly interested include the Farm, Dairy, Bakery, Post Office, Firemen, and Policemen. They are able to discover simple relationships between community activities, such as transporting food from the bakery and dairy to stores growing products on the farm for use in the home, and the contributions of different individuals to life in the community. These understandings are expressed effectively through dramatic play, discussion, art, and related activities.

10 The developing interests of eight year-olds make possible more extended units in the social studies. In Grades I and II children have learned many things about the home, school, neighborhood, and the immediate community. They may now undertake more intensive

studies of aspects of living in the expanded community, such as transportation by trains or boats, wholesale market, water supply, and ways of securing food shelter, and clothing. Clearer understandings of how people depend upon one another and help each other should be emphasized. These must be developed concretely through the use of excursions, dramatic play, and audio visual materials as well as through reading and discussion. A consideration of the ways in which people in the community meet needs for food, shelter, and clothing provides many opportunities for increasing insight into basic life processes.

11 The developing *strands of meaning* which children in Grade III use as a background for considering the ways of living of other groups are not primarily historical or geographical. That is, as children study life in the expanded community or a simple primitive culture, the major emphasis is not on how long ago, how far away, or the number of square miles. From the child's point of view, it is more a matter of comparing and noting likenesses and differences in ways of living of others as compared with ways of living in his home and immediate community. The understandings the child has developed, his background of experience and concepts then become his strands of meaning for considering other communities.

12 Attention should be given to developmental tasks as experiences are planned and developed in the social studies. Language, numbers and other skills should be strengthened through practical use in each unit of work. Wholesome attitudes toward oneself and others, concepts of social and physical aspects of the environment, and group action skills can be developed in daily activities as well as through guided experiences involving the use of audio visual materials and textbooks. Specific emphasis can be given to democratic values and morality in our culture as children meet daily problems and as they undertake units of work dealing with home and family, the neighborhood, and community living.

INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

The transition from Grade III to IV is not a sharp break in the child's development. The whole child continues to develop gradually in line with his growth pattern. Individual differences continue to increase, and there is much overlapping of growth characters between grades. Developmental tasks continue to be of major importance.

tance as children develop more refined skills, make rapid progress in the formation of concepts tend to form a more cohesive set of values, and take on a more clear cut sex role. Although all children face the same general tasks, different expectancies exist for boys and girls, and for children in different socio-economic groups.²² Thus boys are expected to be somewhat rougher and more skilled in sports. Children from lower socio-economic homes are taught to fear authority rather than to respect it. Middle class children typically are taught to comply with regulations not necessarily to fear them. Differences such as these should be kept in mind as the following growth characteristics are read.

Physical growth continues to be steady but slow, with a lag just before puberty.²³ Children in Grades IV, V, and VI have a great amount of energy, and boys like to show their physical prowess. Some girls enter the pubertal cycle, and girls generally are more advanced than boys. Eye hand coordination and manipulative skill are developed continuously to a point at which many children demonstrate real competence in detailed construction drawing, and weaving. Postural defects sometimes appear and may indicate fatigue, malnutrition, infection, emotional disturbances, orthopedic problems, or other difficulties. Bodily growth is more rapid than heart growth, and lungs are not fully developed. Physical competition with stronger children is undesirable.

Intellectual growth is marked by active curiosity, wide interests, the making of varied collections, increased language facility, improved reading ability, rich creative work, and growth in social concepts. Work and play are differentiated, real and fanciful are distinguished, and dramatic play and construction become more realistic and detailed than in former years. Attention span is increasing and concentration may be given to a task for a long period of time. Level of aspiration increases as children mature and may be reflected in more effective self-criticism, and in hesitancy on the part of some children to show their work or take part in dramatic representation of things learned in school. Goals are still relatively immediate, but children can now make more effective plans for future events.

Insight into causal relationships is developing and is manifested

²² For a concise summary, see W. E. Martin and C. B. Stendler, *Child Development*, New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., Inc., 1933, pp. 274-281.

²³ For a summary of research on physical growth see Helen Thompson, "Physical Growth," *Manual of Child Psychology*, op. cit., pp. 297-334. For a good discussion of motor development see A. T. Jersild, *Child Psychology*, 4th ed., New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1954, pp. 147-176.

by many *why* and *how* questions²⁴ and the ability to explain such phenomena as the movement of boats and windmills and the differences between people living in different environments. Children make simple generalizations such as "We're getting closer together now that airplanes can take us to different countries," and, "The Pioneers had courage." Specific attention needs to be given to cause effect relationships in social situations as problems arise²⁵. Effective ways to work together, the development and use of standards and self evaluation should be emphasized. Many children do not anticipate the outcomes of their behavior and need guidance in "thinking ahead" in terms of the welfare of the group as well as in personal welfare.

Rapid growth takes place in the development of communication skills. Reading ability, skill in writing and listening skills become more refined and are used functionally in situations that arise in the social studies. Discussion ability develops continuously, and tends to move from individual interests to topics and problems of group concern²⁶.

Interests expand and become diverse during the intermediate grades²⁷. Both boys and girls are interested in fiction, adventure, travel puzzles, and the *why* and *how* of things. Interest in reading reaches its height at eleven or twelve years of age. Sex differences may be noted in children's interest as boys show more concern for mechanical things, model making, science, boys' games and outdoor life, while girls show culturally stimulated interests in home life, parties, sewing, girls' games, and other "things that girls do." Interest in the environment is extended beyond the community into ever-widening areas such as the state, nation and other countries.

Interest in television programs is high and appears to be the favorite leisure time activity of elementary school children in urban areas²⁸. Upwards of twenty hours per week on the average are spent

²⁴ See Emily V. Baker, *Children's Questions and Their Implications for Planning the Curriculum*, New York Teachers College Columbia University 1945 and J. M. Deutsche, *The Development of Children's Concepts of Causal Relations*, Minneapolis University of Minnesota Press 1937.

²⁵ Arthur Blair and W. H. Burton, *Growth and Development of the Preadolescent*, New York Appleton-Century-Crofts Inc. 1951 pp. 23-24.

²⁶ For a discussion of changes in children's general discussions at various levels of development see H. V. Baker, *Children's Contributions in Elementary School General Discussion*, *Child Development Monographs*, No. 29, New York Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University 1942.

²⁷ For an excellent summary of studies of children's interests see A. T. Jersild, *op. cit.* pp. 500-520 and Leonard Carmichael (Ed.), *Manual of Child Psychology*, New York, John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1954, pp. 1075-1085.

²⁸ Paul Witty, "Children and TV-A Sixth Report," *Elementary English*, 31, 469-476 November, 1955.

in viewing programs classified as *Westerns*, *Comedy*, *Sports*, *Quiz*, *Drama*, *Science*, *Current Events*, and *Variety*. Preparation and use of guides for the selection of programs has been found to be helpful in upgrading the quality of programs chosen by children. The amount of televiwing by children at this level is not closely related to intelligence or achievement. In some cases the effect of televiwing has been found to be undesirable, while in others it has been found to stimulate better work in school. The number of educational programs is increasing and they hold great promise for the enrichment of the social studies.

In some school systems there is a decrease in children's interest in the social studies beginning in Grade IV and continuing through the program. Yet, in Jersild's and Tasch's study, children requested that they be provided opportunities to learn more about social topics which fall under the general heading of social studies.²⁹ Approximately 50 per cent of the children's questions in Baker's³⁰ study are within the area of the social studies. Their questions are related to family problems, relationships to others, social activities, local conditions, community living, government, taxes, current events, holidays, customs of others, other places and peoples, inventions and a host of other topics. These facts should encourage teachers to develop a program that is interesting, challenging, and related to the needs of children and the conditions in the community in which they live. Jersild and Tasch state that the negative reactions which they found to the social studies might differ if more attention were given to issues and topics "that touch upon children's own feelings and that have a bearing on emotional currents in their own lives."³¹

Social concepts develop gradually as children mature, although there is much overlapping from grade to grade and wide variation among children within a given grade.³² There is an especially rapid growth of social studies concepts from Grade IV through Grade VIII.

²⁹ A. T. Jersild and R. J. Tasch, *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education* New York Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949, pp. 27-34.

³⁰ E. V. Baker, *Children's Questions and Their Implications for the Curriculum*, New York Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945.

³¹ Jersild and Tasch, *op. cit.*, p. 28

³² F. L. Bates, *Factors Related to Children's Understanding of Social Studies Concepts*, Unpublished doctoral dissertation Berkeley University of California, 1947. Harry Ordan, *Social Concepts and the Child Mind* New York King's Crown Press, 1943. Margaret W. Cera, "Child Development and Concepts." (Walter S Monroe, Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* New York The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp. 176-178. T. J. Eskridge, Jr., "Growth in Understanding of Geographic Terms in Grades IV to VII," *Duke University Research Studies in Education*, No. 4 Durham, North Carolina Duke University Press, 1939.

Children also form misconceptions and stereotypes which must be corrected,³³ and there is a considerable amount of verbalism or use of terms without adequate foundations of meaning. For example, a study by Scott and Myers³⁴ revealed that many children could name an explorer but could not give the meaning of the term *explorer*.

In a study of breadth, depth, and height of children's vocabularies and their meanings, Russell³⁵ found that concept development becomes more specialized as children mature; girls appear to specialize somewhat earlier than do boys. Breadth of social studies concepts seems to be somewhat independent of the development of concepts in other areas. Specific attention must be given to the development and evaluation of social studies concepts in particular, not just to the development and evaluation of concepts in general.

Although many time concepts are known by children in the intermediate grades, chronology and historical time cannot be grasped by most children until they are in junior or senior high school.³⁶ Similarly, space concepts of sphericity of the earth, such as longitude and latitude, are not really learned by most children until they are in the upper grades or in junior high school.³⁷ Jersild states that "the problem becomes one of cutting to size the ideas and concepts that go into the social studies curriculum and of harnessing these to projects which have meaning in the everyday lives of children."³⁸ Horn's writings forcibly reveal the need for using excursions, models, construction, and other concrete experiences at all levels in the program in order to develop clear concepts.³⁹

Social development is marked by the emergence of group values

³³ Rose Zeligs, "Racial Attitudes of Children as Expressed by Their Concepts of Races," *Sociology and Social Research*, 21 361-371, April, 1937.

³⁴ F. Scott and G. C. Myers, "Children's Empty and Erroneous Concepts of the Commonplace," *Journal of Educational Research*, 8 327-334, November, 1923.

³⁵ D. H. Russell, *The Dimensions of Children's Meaning Vocabularies in Grades Four Through Twelve*. University of California Publications in Education, Vol. 11, No. 5, pp. 315-414. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1954, pp. 361-364, 374.

³⁶ See Frederick Pistor, "How Time Concepts Are Acquired by Children," *Educational Method*, 20 107-112, November, 1940, and Kopple C. Friedman, "Time Concepts of Elementary School Children," *Elementary School Journal*, 44 337-342, February, 1944.

³⁷ E. B. Wesley, "Social Studies," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (W. S. Monroe, Ed.). New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950, p. 1227.

³⁸ A. T. Jersild and Associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946, p. 115.

³⁹ Ernest Horn, "Language and Meaning," *The Psychology of Learning*, Forty-first Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1942, pp. 377-413, and *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937, Chaps. IV and X.

and social attitudes, sex cleavage, formation of cliques, and increased interest and skill in cooperative activities. In activities they themselves initiate,⁴⁰ boys and girls tend to separate on the basis of sex and to form cliques. They have their own leaders and they place high value on the thoughts, feelings, actions, and standards of their group. Leaders are usually above average in appearance, fluency of speech, intelligence, self-control, and athletic ability.

Aggression toward others is still in evidence in such forms as teasing, ostracizing, criticizing, and ridiculing others, but overt acts such as hitting and fighting tend to decrease.⁴¹ Studies of social classes reveal that children from lower-class homes tend to fight more for what they want than do children from middle- and upper-class homes.⁴² Gesell⁴³ stresses the importance of recognizing that interpersonal conflicts of children are specific and concrete from the child's point of view. Conflicts should be approached in a concrete way without appeals to virtue, the past, the future, or some other point of reference which is abstract from the child's point of view. Children at this level need assistance in the specific situations in which they find themselves.

Adult values are not so highly regarded as in earlier years, and are often rejected, especially when they are in conflict with peer values.⁴⁴ Children in the middle grades strive to become more self-directive and more independent, they want to assert themselves. There is a tendency to shift from identification with parents and teachers to identification with one's peers. Acceptance by one's peers is a major concern, rejection by them creates feelings of insecurity and anxiety. Rejection by adults, or behavior of adults, such as ridicule and sarcasm which leads to feelings of rejection, also creates feelings of insecurity. A major need of children at this level is to maintain security with adults, and at the same time gain prestige among their peers. A code of behavior with peers is emerging and has fine shades of meaning that must not be overlooked.⁴⁵ For example, boys who

⁴⁰ For a good discussion see Jersild and associates, *op. cit.*, pp. 29-130. Helen L. Koch, "A Study of Some Factors Conditioning Social Distance Between the Sexes," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 20, 79-107, August 1944, and E. H. Campbell, "The Social-Sex Development of Children," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 21, 461-552, November, 1939.

⁴¹ Ellsworth, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

⁴² Allison Davis, *Social Class Influences Upon Learning*, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1949.

⁴³ Arnold Gesell and F. L. Ilg, *The Child From Five to Ten*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1946, p. 336.

⁴⁴ Blair and Burton, *op. cit.*, pp. 24-33.

⁴⁵ Blair and Burton, *op. cit.*, pp. 38-40.

⁴⁶ Ellsworth, *op. cit.*, pp. 38-40.

are overly boisterous or rough in activities with girls may not be accepted by the group. Cooperation with others in school activities reaches a high level, and group standards can be developed and used effectively in many situations. Group planning, cooperative action, and group evaluation can be used effectively if guided by the teacher. If sound teacher-pupil relationships exist, child-teacher conflicts are at a minimum.

There is a growing sense of right and wrong—moral and ethical values—⁴⁶ and a greater willingness to use persuasion and reason in attaining one's goals. A more critical sense of justice is emerging with emphasis upon such practical values as fair play, being a good sport, concern for others, respect for constituted authority, and honesty. Many opportunities exist to inculcate moral and spiritual values that will help to improve human relationships in the immediate situation, and will serve as a basis for extending and enriching values in the future.

Social attitudes assume increasing importance in the intermediate grades, although they are in process of development at all levels. Criswell's ⁴⁷ study indicates that racial cleavage increases with age and is high by Grade V; children below Grade IV typically show little prejudice toward others. However, it has been shown that even five-year-olds in certain situations are aware of, and express, various stereotypes about minority groups.⁴⁸ Other studies indicate that some children in the middle grades form stereotypes about races and nationalities,⁴⁹ tend to have social attitudes similar to their parents, and form rationalizations for their attitudes during adolescence.⁵⁰ The knowledge children possess about a group conditions their attitudes toward the group.⁵¹ Children from authoritarian homes tend to be more prejudiced than do children from homes with a democratic atmosphere.⁵²

⁴⁶ Blair and Burton, *op. cit.*, p. 90

⁴⁷ J. H. Criswell, "Racial Cleavage in Negro-White Groups," *Sociometry*, 181-89, 1937.

⁴⁸ M. Radke, H. G. Trager, and H. Davis, "Social Perceptions and Attitudes of Children," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 40 327-447, 1949

⁴⁹ H. Meltzer, "Group Differences in Nationality and Race Preferences of Children," *Sociometry* 2 86-105, January, 1939, and Rose Zeligs, "Racial Attitudes of Children," *Sociology and Social Research*, 21 361-371 March-April, 1937.

⁵⁰ E. L. Horowitz and R. E. Horowitz, "Development of Social Attitudes in Children," *Sociometry*, 1 301-338, January-April, 1938

⁵¹ G. Murphy, Lois B. Murphy, and T. M. Newcomb, *Experimental Social Psychology* New York Harper & Brothers, 1937

⁵² D. B. Harris, H. G. Gough, and W. E. Martin, "Children's Ethnic Attitudes II Relationship to Parental Beliefs Concerning Child Training," *Child Development*, 21 169-181, 1950.



Los Angeles

Dramatic representation becomes more patterned and more detailed as children mature.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES There are several implications of the foregoing growth characteristics for the social studies program in the intermediate grades.

1. A smooth transition from the primary grades to Grade IV is essential. No abrupt changes should occur, as many children will develop a feeling of insecurity and a lack of interest in the program if continuity is disrupted.
2. Provision should be made for an increasing range of individual differences in all phases of the program. Differences in reading ability, communication skills, ability to use maps and globes, and problem-solving skills increase as children mature. As a result, the use of materials of varying levels of difficulty, flexible grouping, individualized procedures, and varying degrees of expectancy in evaluation become mandatory. By providing for a variety of activities in each unit, all children can make a contribution.

3. Consideration must be given to the varied interests of boys and girls in selecting methods and materials, and in grouping children

for work in such activities as construction, committee work, dramatic representation, artistic experiences, and reading. The beginning tendency of boys and girls to segregate will not present great difficulties if children have become accustomed to group dramatic play, rhythms, construction, and folk dances in previous years. In fact, in schools where this is done systematically, the problem of sex cleavage is not great in school activities.

4. Experiences in preceding years have contributed adequate backgrounds for a consideration of processes of living in communities and cultures outside the child's immediate environment. Ways of living in the child's home state and in other places may be studied with understanding if such studies are related to the child's immediate environment, and if use is made of carefully selected audio-visual materials, construction of objects and models, and processing of materials. (See Chapter 13.) The common needs of people in other places for food, shelter, and clothing should be made fields of inquiry. The ways in which different conditions produce different modes of living should be given attention, but it is important to avoid emphasis upon petty differences and stereotypes.

5. The emerging tendency to accept and use peer values offers opportunities to increase skill in cooperative group work. Group planning, action, evaluation, and formulation of behavior standards should be emphasized. Increasing emphasis should be given to self-control, leadership responsibilities, followership responsibilities, and techniques of cooperation.

6. Desire for adventure and excitement can be met through excursions, dramatization, TV and radio programs, motion pictures, group activities, and experiences in literature. Boys like to be thought of as "strong, tough and brave," while girls tend to become more "refined and ladylike," especially if they are approaching puberty. Both are enthusiastic about adventure, however, and enjoy stories such as those related to colonial and pioneer living. They act out various episodes related to early American life with genuine skill, and like to identify themselves with the people of earlier times. The folk dances, art, music, and literature of this period may profitably be used to stimulate interest in and appreciation of early days in America.⁵³ This may be noted by watching them as they realistically dramatize scouts, pioneers, and hunters. This should be capitalized upon by the teacher and used to develop significant and lasting appreciation of the important contribution made by colonists and pioneers to life in America.

⁵³ Committee of the Framework for the Social Studies, *op. cit.*

7 Dramatic representation should become more patterned and realistic, moving away from the dramatic play typical of primary children, yet remaining creative, childlike, and spontaneous

8 Work in construction, map making, making of dioramas, weaving, and other processes should reflect more precision and detail as children develop increased skill in eye hand coordination

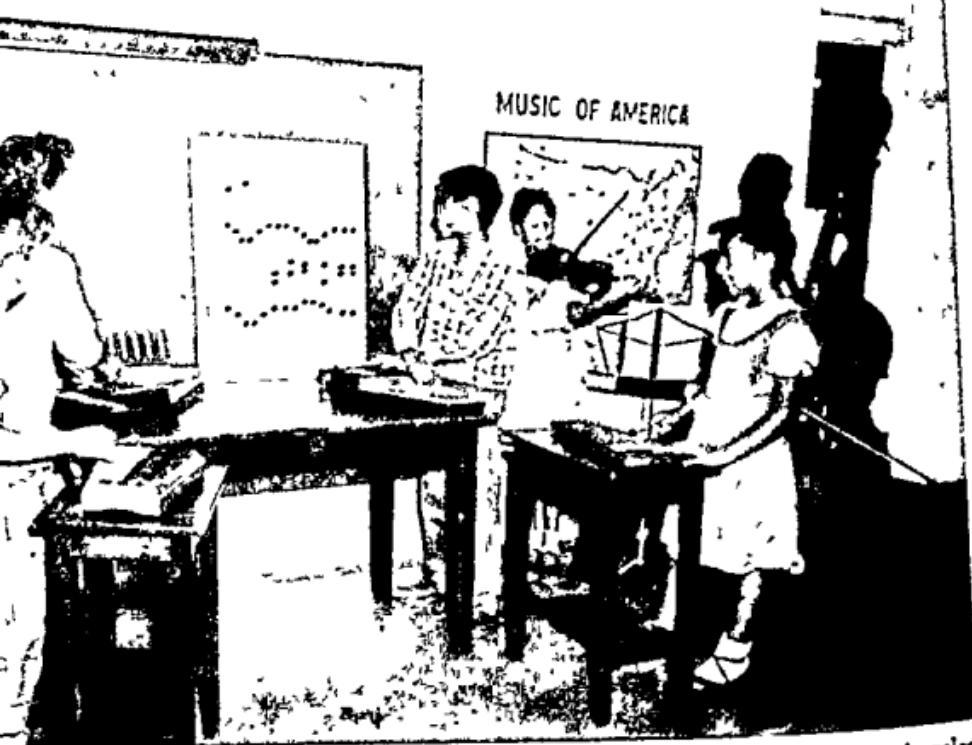
9 Guidance should be provided in the selection of television and radio programs, and movies, particular attention should be given to those related to on going units of work. Related radio programs should not be overlooked. Cooperation of parents is needed in planning sound televiewing schedules. Helpful procedures are to have children become critics of TV programs and assist in the preparation of guides for the selection of programs. Worthwhile interests stimulated by TV should be capitalized upon and extended through reading, use of related audio-visual materials, and creative expression

10 Concrete experiences are essential to the development of clear concepts. Firsthand experiences such as making pioneer furniture, weaving, processing wool and flax, parching corn, preparing other foods, and dipping candles may be undertaken and used to give insight into differences in the ways of living in early American times and those of today. Study trips, experiments, demonstrations and audio-visual materials are other essential instructional resources which can be used to develop clear concepts

11 Problem solving situations should emphasize the *how* and *why* as well as the *who*, *what*, *where*, and *when*. Information and facts are emphasized as data to use in problem solving, not as material to be memorized

12 Skills should be used functionally in gathering, organizing, and summarizing information. Reading, letter writing, outlining, interviewing, discussing, and reporting can be used with increasing facility. Maps, globes, and reference materials assume increasing importance. Here again, individual differences must be noted and accommodated

13 Children's social attitudes can be improved through satisfying experiences with others, acquisition and use of information about other individuals and groups, development and use of group standards of fair play and sportsmanship, seeing motion pictures, discussion of issues and problems, examples set by the teacher and children, self-evaluation checklists, reading selections on other groups, and learning about contributions of others. Specific suggestions are given in the next chapter



Los Angeles

Creative expression reaches a high level in the middle grades. What other types of creative activity should be provided in connection with social studies experiences?

14. Extended periods of time should be provided to complete cooperatively planned tasks. At times, it may be necessary to combine two or more periods (such as art and social studies) in order to carry out various responsibilities.

15. Rich experiences should be provided in creative expression through art, music, literature, and rhythms. A variety of media and materials are essential.

16. Increasing use should be made of individual and group self-evaluation. Charts, checklists, and group discussion are effective techniques for this purpose. (See Chapter 15 for specific suggestions on types of evaluative devices.)

UPPER GRADE LEVEL

Certain developmental tasks assume increasing importance during later childhood and the beginning of adolescence.⁵⁴ Many children

⁵⁴ Caroline Tryon and J. W. Lilenthal, *op. cit.*, pp. 77-128.

begin to work out a definite masculine or feminine role. Human relationships become more complex as children strive to gain increasing independence from adults and face new and interesting heterosexual relationships. "Crushes" on members of the opposite sex, sometimes on teachers, are in evidence. Greater identification with age mates leads many children to differentiate more clearly between their own world and the world of adults. Concern about self is great and peer values serve as guides to behavior in many social situations. Language patterns of the gang or clique assume great importance, and new problems of bodily control and personal appearance emerge as growth changes occur. Teachers and other adults who "speak down" to children at this age level, or who simulate their patterns or codes of behavior, are not highly regarded; they expect adults to "understand and accept" their problems and behavior and to provide guidance in a sympathetic and mature manner. Individual guidance is essential in many cases.

Many children in Grades VII and VIII are in a transitional pubescent period characterized by rapid growth, while others are still "growing children." A wide range of individual differences is to be expected among both boys and girls, and methods and materials must be selected with these differences in view. Rapid muscular growth, increased tendency to fatigue, variation in energy, poor posture, restlessness, and poor control as revealed by awkwardness are in evidence among those children in early adolescence.⁵⁵ Some children manifest changes in breasts, hips, and voice, along with fainting spells and dizziness. Teachers who understand are needed to prevent embarrassment. Heart growth is still behind bodily growth, and over-exertion should be avoided. Many boys develop greater physical strength than girls, but girls generally have more precision in physical skills since they are more mature. Different levels of achievement are in evidence as map work, graphic illustration, and other activities involving detailed steps are undertaken.

Social development is marked by increasing cooperation, group approval, respect for sportsmanship, organized social activities, increasing interest in the other sex as children approach adolescence, and an increasing number of personal preferences. Social attitudes and social status tend to exert great influence in the selection of friends.

⁵⁵ For an excellent analysis of physical changes and motor development during adolescence see chapters by Greulich, Bayley and Tuddenham, the Selszer, 2nd Jones and Conrad in *Adolescence* Forti third Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1944. For a concise summary see J. E. Horrocks, "The Adolescent" *Manual of Child Psychology*, pp. 67-74.



San Diego County

The precision and skill which children possess at this level can be utilized in related art activities of many types. Can you think of others?

and participation in group activities. Group values still take precedence over adult values but a more adultlike sense of values and a moral code are in process of development. Good sportsmanship is highly esteemed and leaders are chosen who reflect qualities admired

by the group ⁵⁶ Self-criticism, strong desires for freedom from adult domination, opportunity to make one's own decisions, and increasing interest in adult activities are in evidence Boy girl relationships status in social groups, problems at home, vocational possibilities, and plans for the future are considered by more mature children in the upper grades ⁵⁷ Many will have selected one or two best friends Racial attitudes are similar to those of their parents Children at this level enjoy working with sincere, friendly, helpful, stable adults who understand them

Interests are broadening, becoming more individualized, and are tending toward those of adults Extreme likes and dislikes, interest in movies, radio and TV programs on an adult level desire to learn more about themselves, and concern about future educational and vocational plans are characteristic of more mature children at this level Science, adventure, mechanics and sports interest boys, while girls show increasing interest in cosmetics clothes personal attractiveness, and romantic stories Boys develop interest in personal appearance later than do girls Increasing respect and concern are shown for responsibilities in social relationships, and many children at this level have a strong desire to become more effective in their relationships with others Manners and courtesy take on a new importance as interest in the opposite sex increases Emulation of individuals who have achieved success may be stimulated through reading discussion, dramatics, and interviews A wide range of interests will be found in different activities in the social studies

Intellectual development is on a higher plane and is manifested by increasing interest in more advanced problems and ideas ⁵⁸ Individual differences have increased and this fact must be recognized in the selection of methods and materials Concepts develop rapidly Ideas and values related to tolerance, right and wrong, and community problems interest many children, and there is increasing ability to develop and use generalizations However, misconceptions and erroneous ideas are in evidence and need correction through planned experiences Need still exists for much direct experiencing in order to assure continuous development of meaningful concepts and under

standings. Problems are attacked with increasing skill, group planning and discussion are advanced, and sustained application can be given to the solution of problems. Language ability is developing, but slang is often used because of peer values.

Increased importance is attached to personal selection of activities, and arbitrarily imposed requirements are resisted by children of this age. High premium is placed on "brains." "Dummies" are not accepted unless they possess physical skills. Many children at this level tend to blame poor work on laziness.⁶⁹ Individual guidance is needed and welcomed if given indirectly and without offense. Children at this level have little insight into their own intellectual ability, although skill in self-criticism is increasing and self-evaluation may be used more effectively than in former years. Time and space concepts are more easily grasped, but historical sequences, chronology, and periods in history are not clearly defined, even though such devices as time lines are used.⁷⁰ Concrete experience and maturation are still prerequisite to high levels of development in this regard. Some individuals are beginning to develop an understanding of the importance of the past in understanding the present.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES The social studies in the upper grades should be a smooth continuum moving the group to higher levels of development. In general, the change is one of recognition of the emerging needs and problems of preadolescents and early adolescents as shown in the following:

1. Group planning, discussion, and evaluation may be carried out on a high level. Care must be given to the sensibilities, needs and contributions of each individual, as many are self conscious, supersensitive, and easily embarrassed. Rejection of contributions may lead to withdrawal and refusal to participate.

2. The desire of individuals to be on their own may be capitalized upon by means of independent and group research activities related to problems and topics in the social studies.

3. The development of increased ability to do abstract thinking, to develop generalizations and to use work study skills makes possible the use of more varied instructional resources and topics broader in scope. Social, political, economic, and ethical considerations may become a part of the program, provided they are related to backgrounds of experience and are introduced gradually. Many

⁶⁹ Jersild and Associates, *op. cit.*, pp. 185-186.

⁷⁰ Pistor, *op. cit.*

firsthand experiences in the community are still needed and contribute greatly to problem-solving ability

4 Extended units dealing with more complex relationships and activities are possible, examples are Latin America, Europe, United States, and Growth of Democracy

5 Increased intellectual ability makes possible more intensive use of vicarious experiences Maps globes, references, library resources, and textbooks can be used with a higher degree of independence

6 Group discussion and definition of problems should be carried out in line with clearly established procedures Techniques for conducting meetings and participating in discussions should be developed to a high level Discussion should be impersonal objective, and open to all

7 Critical analysis should be made of reading materials by pupils in order to detect conflicting points of view and to improve skill in securing reliable sources of information Beginning steps can be taken in analysis of propaganda and persuasion materials⁶¹

8 Individual guidance and indirect suggestions are needed to minimize embarrassment and resentment Desire for independence provides an opportunity to bring about more effective group and individual planning

9 A wide range of activities and materials are needed to meet individual differences and needs

10 Care must be taken in the organization of committees and working groups so that embarrassment and loss of status will be avoided

11 Because girls are generally more advanced in physical growth than boys, different levels of expectancy should be kept in mind as map work, graphic illustration and other activities involving detailed work are undertaken Here again there will be wide individual differences among boys and girls

12 Checklists, interest inventories attitude scales, and personal rating devices can be used effectively in self evaluation

The foregoing analysis has suggested ways in which the social studies program can be related to the growth characteristics of children Several growth trends have been enumerated Perhaps a brief summary of strands of development of significance in the social studies

⁶¹ James Quillen and Lavone A. Hanna *Education for Social Competence* Chicago Scott Foresman Company 1948 Chap XII

will help to re-emphasize the fact that growth and development are continuous and gradual. Among these trends, are:

Growth in discussion ability, progressing from rather self-centered contributions and topics to concern for group ideas and plans.

Growth in group action skills, progressing from individual and parallel play to cooperative teamwork, and from personal wishes and values to group values and standards.

Growth in problem-solving ability, progressing from simple and immediate one-step problems to more complex problems involving several relationships.

Growth in concepts, progressing from those developed in concrete experiences in the home and school to those developed through both direct and vicarious experiences in an expanding environment.

Growth in dramatic play and dramatic representation, progressing from make-believe and free expression to realistic and patterned portrayal of significant events in community, state, national, and international settings.

Growth in construction ability, progressing from simple objects to those requiring precision and detail.

Growth from interest in the immediate environment to interest in faraway peoples and places.

Growth in ability to accept and discharge responsibility, progressing from situations involving oneself to situations involving several children.

Growth in reading skill, progressing from the readiness stage to the stage of wide and independent reading to secure information on a variety of problems.

Growth in emotional response, progressing from such behavior as hitting and crying to use of cooperative group processes.

Growth in self-evaluation skills, progressing from dependence upon adults for suggestions to slowly increasing ability to make self-appraisals.

Probably the greatest value in the child-development approach to education is the point of view implied for the planning, guidance, and evaluation of individual and group experiences. In brief, this point of view holds that the educational program must be geared to the nature and needs of children. As increasing numbers of teachers, principals, and supervisors adopt and use a developmental point of view in their daily work with children, instructional problems in the social studies and other areas of the curriculum will tend to be

solved with increasing skill and facility. This point of view also has several implications for essential conditions of learning. These are examined in the following chapter.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss practical ways in which experiences in the social studies can be developed to help children meet developmental tasks successfully. Summarize specific experiences that can be carried out in units of work at various levels.
2. Discuss the implications suggested for different grade levels. Are there others that should be added? Which ones apply to a degree at all levels? Which ones are pertinent at particular levels?
3. Collect samples of children's work (drawings, charts, maps, etc.) in primary, intermediate, and upper grades. Arrange them in sequence and note changes in development from level to level.
4. Observe children in different grades as they engage in discussion, dramatic play, map making and other social studies activities. What differences in maturity are in evidence from level to level? How does the teacher's role vary?
5. Visit schools in two different socio-economic areas of your community. Note differences in children's behavior in the classroom and on the playground. Which differences can be attributed to variations in socio-economic background? Can some differences be attributed to other factors such as the school program?
6. Discuss individual differences that should be expected at various levels of development even though certain growth characteristics may be typical of individuals in the group. For example, attention span, language and concept development, formation of cliques, interests and the like.
7. Discuss children you know, or have known with growth characteristics that deviate considerably from the growth characteristics outlined in this chapter. Can you give possible reasons for their deviation? Are any deviations detrimental to group adjustment?
8. The major emphasis in this chapter has been on implications of child development for the social studies. Discuss ways in which the social studies can contribute to wholesome child development. Give attention to physical, emotional, and intellectual development as well as to social development.
9. It is sometimes said that a teacher's point of view toward children is as important as having information about children. State reasons why this statement is of special significance in the social studies. Recall teachers with differing points of view toward children and summarize differences in children's reaction to them. Prepare a brief statement of your point of view toward children in primary, intermediate, or upper grades, discuss

it with others who are interested in teaching children at the same stage of development

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IMPROVING THE CHILD'S LEARNING

In addition to specific implications for the social studies mentioned in the preceding chapter, there are several principles and procedures for the improvement of learning which emerge from a consideration of how children grow, develop, and learn. They are helpful in organizing the social studies and in developing learning experiences with children. In this chapter, attention is given to (a) guidelines for the improvement of learning, (b) the development of attitudes, and (c) the development of concepts and understandings.

GUIDELINES FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF LEARNING

There are several basic conditions of learning which are essential to the development of an effective social studies program. Before considering them, a brief definition of learning is in order. The term *learning* is used to denote changes in the child's behavior which result from interaction with his environment.¹ Interaction with the environment, in the social studies, means the activity that takes place when children are stimulated to work together, use instructional materials, explore the community, and engage in construction, reading, discussion, and so forth, in order to solve real-to-the-child problems. Thus, learning is a process whereby the child modifies his behavior as he achieves purposes that are significant and meaningful. Now then, let us consider some conditions which will bring about desirable

¹ For a good discussion of learning see G. L. Anderson and A. L. Gates, "The General Nature of Learning," *Learning and Instruction*, 49th Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950, pp. 12-35.

changes in the child's behavior as he engages in social studies experiences

Learning is improved when the instructional program is based on an understanding of each child's capabilities, interests, and background In order to develop an adequate understanding of the children in a given group, it is necessary to use a variety of child study techniques and procedures The following are illustrative of those used in many school systems (a) interviewing children, parents and former teachers and, at times, representatives of community agencies, (b) observing children in various situations, (c) giving and interpreting teacher-made and standardized tests, (d) using simple checklists, questionnaires, inventories, and rating scales, (e) studying group structure and social status by means of sociometric techniques, (f) examining samples of work and keeping files of sample materials to discover growth trends, (g) making case studies and participating in case conferences, (h) making anecdotal records, (i) having children keep diaries, (j) making logs of activities, (k) securing assistance from guidance workers, and (l) consulting cumulative records²

The information gathered by means of child study techniques can be used to plan units, select materials, organize working groups, and meet individual needs Reading materials, for example, should range from simple, pictorial booklets for the child with relatively low reading ability to references that will challenge the most advanced children in the group Other instructional resources must also be appropriate to the level of development of individuals in the group Finally, the increased understanding of each child that the teacher derives from studying children in a given group is of inestimable value An understanding of the child's needs and problems contributes greatly to rapport and warm human relationships in the classroom

Learning is improved when it is recognized that multiple learnings may be involved in a given experience Emotional, social, physical, and intellectual factors must be considered in each situation Attitudes, concepts, and appreciations do not emerge one by one in an isolated manner This is so because the child acts, reacts, and learns as a unitary being The whole child is involved in the social studies as he is in all of the experiences which he undergoes

This may be illustrated by pointing out that a child at work

² Examples of evaluative devices are contained in Chapter 15 For a detailed discussion of child study techniques see T. L. Torgerson and G. S. Adams, *Measurement and Evaluation for the Elementary-School Teacher* New York The Dryden Press, 1954

securing needed information in a unit on Pioneer Life may be learning several things simultaneously, he may learn some new facts, how to locate material more effectively, in appreciation for the hardships of the pioneers, how much more enjoyable it is to make plans than it is to carry them out, to dislike research work because the books are too difficult, or he may acquire misconceptions because certain concepts were not clearly developed prior to the beginning of the research period. Outcomes will vary, of course, depending upon each child's background of experience and his level of development. Some outcomes may be more potent than those which the teacher is emphasizing. For example, although the teacher's major purposes may be to improve research techniques and to gather information to use in problem solving, some children may be developing poor attitudes toward research activity, or even a dislike for the social studies.

Furthermore, the interrelationship of emotional, social, mental, and physical factors must not be overlooked because each affects the others. For example, if a child is tired, or has been disturbed by something which occurred before he came to school, his behavior may be vastly different from what it was the day before. If children are asked to sit still for an extended period of time, they lose interest in what they are doing and begin to move and wiggle to satisfy their urges for physical activity. If children are placed in situations which call for a higher order of social skills than they possess, they become frustrated and tend to withdraw. Tasks that are beyond the intellectual ability of children also create tensions and frustrations. Thoughts, feelings, relations to others, and physical well being are all bound together in an inseparable manner. These facts make it imperative that the whole child be considered as experiences are developed in the social studies.

Learning is improved when experiences have satisfying emotional overtones for children. Children remember and apply the learnings which grow out of vital and stimulating experiences. Cold, dry, drab recitations of facts have very little effect upon children (except negatively, perhaps, by creating an aversion to the social studies) and are soon forgotten. Vital, dynamic, interesting experiences in the social studies in which children clarify problems, plan ways of attacking them, and achieve success in solving them are experiences that are long remembered.

The two contrasting examples which follow highlight the importance of vital learnings in the social studies program. First, let us consider a group which is studying the Westward Movement in a

formal, cold, and sterile manner Very little is being done that arouses the children emotionally The purpose of the lesson, in the teacher's mind at least, is to determine ways in which the pioneers secured food, shelter and clothing

Teacher Today we are to study ways in which the pioneers secured their food I have selected a book that contains information on how they got their food Please read pages 68 to 75 and keep a list of all the ways of getting food that you find in your reading Raise your hand if you have a question

In the following situation, the children and teacher are working together and are attacking the same type of problem Notice the difference, however, in the approach being used

Teacher Yesterday as you dramatized life in Boonesboro, several of you raised questions regarding the ways in which food and clothing were secured What were your questions?

Child A Well, I was wondering how they got food outside of the stockade and how they brought it in

Child B Didn't they raise it right inside?

Child C I was wondering how the women helped to provide food

Child D I read that they had a hard time getting food in winter

Child E I think they ate nuts and berries and deer meat

Teacher Those are good suggestions How do you think we could find more information on ways and means in which they secured food?

In the ensuing discussion the children themselves proposed many procedures for getting at this problem The emotional response was especially gratifying Real interest was in evidence as the group proceeded to solve problems which were significant to them

In addition to active participation on the part of children, other factors must be considered if learnings are to have upbuilding emotional overtones for children It is helpful to use a variety of materials and procedures so that each child is challenged The application of skills and information to plans of action of concern to children is effective Opportunities should also be provided for children to satisfy their curiosity, to express themselves creatively, and to engage in dramatic play, construction, and rhythmic expression These are stimulating modes of expression which contribute much to social learning and, at the same time, are satisfying modes of expression for children



Los Angeles

What satisfying emotional overtones might be an outcome of experiences such as this?

are met. There are many common needs of children which must be accommodated if learning is to be effective. Those needs have been classified in many ways.³ For purposes of our discussion they may be considered as physical, personal, and social needs.

1 *Physical Needs* Children's needs for physical activity can be met in the social studies through excursions, rhythmic expression, dramatic representation, construction, opportunities to handle objects and models, and the processing of materials. Rest and relaxation may be provided through related drawing, painting, clay modeling, listening to stories, reading, creative language expression, and listening to recordings. A rhythm of activity and relaxation is essential in the daily program so that physical activity will be provided and overstimulation avoided.

2 *Personal or Ego Needs* Children need to be considered as unique personalities, to develop personal competencies, to learn to cope with reality, to gain independence and skill in self-direction, to find a place for themselves among others, and to develop an understanding of life about them and their relationships to others. They need opportunities to satisfy their curiosity, to share, and communicate with others, and to express themselves creatively through language, art, music, and literature. Children also need to achieve personal success in meeting various developmental tasks such as learning to read, using tools and materials using problem solving skills, and getting along with others.

Personal needs may be met in the social studies through the provision of a variety of experiences that meet individual interests and abilities. Reading, construction, and related experiences in the arts must be paced with the child's level of development. Freedom of choice should be allowed in many instances in the selection of individual activities. Through creative work each child should express himself freely, discover potentialities, and make contributions to group activities. By sharing his work, helping on construction, and participating in dramatic representation, the child can develop feelings of competence and success and grow in his ability to make personal contributions to group work. Through reading, seeing films, dramatic representation, and other activities, children may identify themselves with people in the community, state, nation, and other cultures.

³ Two good references related to basic needs of children are American Association of School Administrators *Educating for American Citizenship* Washington D.C. National Education Association 1954 pp. 146-164 and D. A. Present *Emotion and the Educational Process* Washington D.C. American Council on Education 1938.

thereby gaining greater understanding of themselves in relation to others.

3. *Social Needs.* Social needs of elementary school children include group approval and acceptance, friendship and affection, feelings of security and belongingness, and sharing and communicating with others. These may be met in the social studies by providing for cooperative group work, giving each child an opportunity to contribute to group activities, recognizing each child's contributions, and relating responsibilities and tasks to each child's abilities, needs, and interests. Other effective ways of meeting children's social needs are sharing responsibilities, providing opportunities for making and using group standards, guiding individual and group self-evaluation, providing varied materials and experiences to promote cooperative activities, and drawing upon each child's individual competencies and special abilities in group work.

Learning is improved when teachers recognize that each child learns in his own way and at his own rate. Because of variations in individual growth patterns, physical and mental endowments, ideals, hopes and ambitions, past experiences, home life, status, and other background factors, each child learns in his own way and at his own rate. Although it is possible to describe growth characteristics of children at various age levels and to establish expectancies in different grades, these facts should not blind the teacher to the realization that each child must be considered as an individual with his own capacities, rate of growth, developmental needs and tasks, and ability to grasp and utilize concepts and meanings. Examples of individual differences may be found in reading levels, in ability to express ideas in oral and written form, in motor skills, in expression through art and music, and in the emotional and social adjustment of children to situations that arise in the social studies.

Teachers should also understand and be sensitive to differences among children due to varying social backgrounds, recognizing that children from the lower classes differ from those in the middle and upper classes in attitudes, moral values, customs, privileges, and training. For example, Havighurst⁴ reported that middle-class parents have more rigorous training requirements than do lower-class parents, and that leisure time activities vary significantly. Middle-class children belong to the Boy Scouts and take music lessons more frequently than lower-class children, who, in turn, attend movies and participate in

⁴ R. J. Havighurst, "Child Development in Relation to Community Social Structure," *Child Development*, 17 85-90, March, 1946

youth center and neighborhood club activities with greater frequency than both middle and upper-middle class children.⁵ However, there is some mixed participation in these activities, indicating that class interaction does exist to a small degree. Other studies have highlighted characteristics of various social classes and groups in American communities.⁶ These characteristics contribute to individual differences and accentuate the fact that each child is a unique person who learns in his own way. Individual needs and differences should be met through the use of such procedures as grouping, varying activities and materials, giving individual help, varying the amount of time needed to complete work, simplifying content, using audio-visual materials, using community resources, developing individual and small-group projects, consulting with parents, providing reading materials on varied levels, and group planning on individual and small-group projects. Again, a sympathetic understanding of each child is of utmost importance.

Learning is improved when a rich environment is provided
Children learn as they interact with persons, objects, and materials in their environment. If maximum learning is to result from social studies experiences, it follows that careful attention must be given to the planning of a stimulating social studies environment for children. The social studies environment includes the teacher, the children themselves, instructional materials, and the community.

The teacher, working as a guide to help children recognize, define, and solve problems, is one of the most important elements in the child's school environment. The children themselves are a basic element because some of the richest social learnings grow out of interpersonal relationships.⁷ The resources of the community are also

⁵ Margherita Macdonald, Carson McGuire, and R. J. Havighurst, "Leisure Activities and the Socioeconomic Status of Children," *American Journal of Sociology*, 54 505-519, May, 1949

⁶ For example, see Allison Davis, *Social-Class Influences Upon Learning* (Inglis Lecture), Cambridge Harvard University Press, 1948, W. L. Warner and P. S. Lunt, *Yankee City Series*, Vol. I *The Social Life of a Modern Community*, and Vol. II *The Status System of a Modern Community* New Haven Yale University Press, 1942, W. L. Warner and L. Stole, *Yankee City Series*, Vol. III *The Social Systems of American Ethnic Groups* New Haven Yale University Press, 1945, W. L. Warner, R. J. Havighurst, and M. B. Loeb, *Who Shall Be Educated?* New York Harper and Brothers, 1944, C. B. Stendler, *Children of Brasstown: Their Awareness of the Symbols of Social Class* Urbana University of Illinois Press, 1949, and L. Dolger and J. Ginandes, "Children's Attitudes Toward Discipline as Related to Socioeconomic Status," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 15 161-165, December, 1946

⁷ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Creating a Good Environment for Learning*. Washington, D. C. National Education Association, 1954

important elements which should be drawn upon to enrich learning at all levels of development. The classroom should be viewed as a laboratory of learning, with changes in instructional materials being made as needs and problems arise. A first step in the development of many units of work is the arrangement of the classroom in such a way that interests, needs, and the recognition of problems are stimulated. (For suggested arrangements, see the Appendix, pp. 478-480.) Attention must also be given to the changing of materials as the unit develops so that new needs and interests can be stimulated.

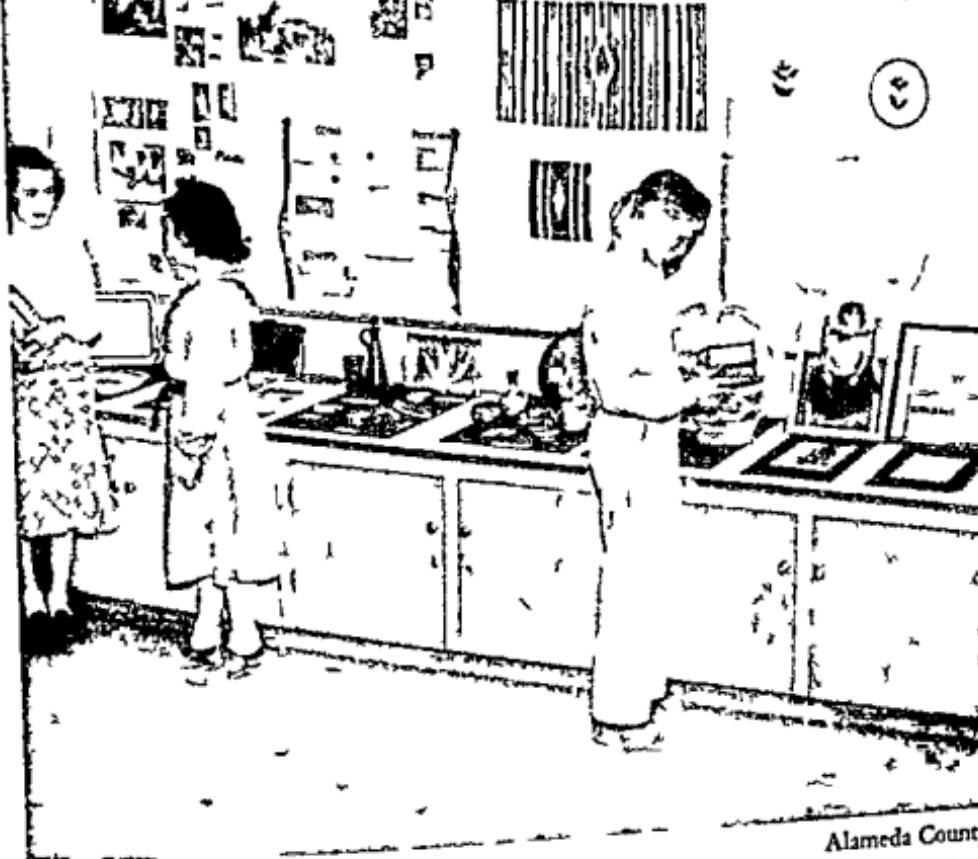
The following example is illustrative of the manner in which one teacher arranged the classroom environment in order to begin a unit on The Farm with a group of seven year-olds:

- (1) Several books dealing with work activities on the farm, farm animals, and products raised on the farm were placed in the reading center.
- (2) Colored illustrations in large sizes (18 x 24 inches) showing the farmer cutting wheat, feeding cattle, and pitching hay from the haymow were posted on the bulletin board.
- (3) Photographs showing such farm activities as milking, feeding the chickens, horses pulling the hay wagon, and plowing the fields were posted on another section of the bulletin board.
- (4) Play materials in one corner of the room included trucks, boxes, farm animals, blocks, and stand-patter dolls.
- (5) Boxes of various sizes, tools, nails, and racks for holding materials were placed in the construction center.
- (6) Various supplies, including clay, paper, crayolas, and tempera, were placed in the art center.

As the children entered this stimulating environment they raised many questions related to animals on the farm, the work of the farmer, uses of the trucks, things they could make, and interests they would like to investigate as they undertook a study of The Farm. From the standpoint of motivation this was a practical approach that aroused interest, developed intense curiosity, and established specific problems for the class to attack in a realistic manner.

Learning is improved when children actively engage in solving problems that are significant and purposeful to them. Little learning takes place when children sit passively and do not understand the purposes involved in a given situation. A first step in securing active participation is to develop real to-the-child purposes so that motivation will be brought to a high level. Problems should be defined through group discussion in which the entire class helps to establish purposes. After purposes are clear and problems are defined, attention should be given to the group planning, action, and evaluation that are essential in collecting, organizing, and using data. Reading, dramatizing,

OUR SOUTHERN NEIGHBORS



Alameda Count

What questions and interests might be stimulated by an arrangement such as this? How might you arrange a classroom to stimulate basic questions and interests in a unit of work?

constructing, outlining, reporting and similar activities used to collect and organize information should be related to each child's level of development so that maximum participation can be secured. Attention should also be given to flexible grouping and provision of appropriate materials. As experiences are developed and new problems arise, the teacher should bear in mind that active participation on the part of children in all phases of problem solving leads to greater learning.

This may be illustrated by a brief description of a group of eight year olds at work during a unit on Boats and Harbor Life. The teacher had arranged a rich environment in the classroom which included models of boats, pictures, stories, attractive booklets, and

pamphlets related to activities in the harbor. As children explored the environment, many of them raised significant questions and made comments that gave real point to group discussion and planning in which purposes were clarified. Typical of the questions and comments were "What is the tugboat for?" "How does the ferryboat work?" "What is a buoy used for?" "Can we make some boats?" "Where can we make a harbor?" "Look at these pictures!" "Can I read this story about the steamboat?"

Through group discussion many of these questions were clarified and restated as needs and purposes to be considered as the unit progressed. Several suggestions were considered and decisions were made by the group on what to do first. This was followed by a series of experiences involving group planning, doing, replanning, and evaluating. Among the types of activities undertaken by the group were construction, dramatic play, reading, listening, looking at pictures, seeing films and film strips, and a visit to the harbor. Thus the children actively participated in developing and achieving purposes that were real and significant to them.

Learning is improved when a variety of activities and instructional resources are drawn upon and used as problems arise. Children develop richer meanings, clearer concepts, and deeper understandings when many different avenues to learning are used. Formal approaches which rely on "readin' and writin'" are inadequate. In programs designed to secure maximum participation on the part of each child and rich interaction with the environment, experiences such as the following are in evidence.

Planning	Announcing	Block building
Discussing	Giving directions	Computing
Reading	Holding meetings	Measuring
Listening	Evaluating	Collecting
Writing	Drawing	Experimenting
Telling	Sketching	Demonstrating
Conversing	Modeling	Dramatizing
Observing	Illustrating	Pantomiming
Interviewing	Painting	Expressing rhythmically
Note taking	Stencilng	Composing
Outlining	Sewing	Playing
Summarizing	Constructing	Singing
Organizing	Soap carving	Sharing
Reviewing	Processing	Exhibiting
Describing	Manipulating	

The following example shows how one group engaged in a variety of experiences to solve major problems which arose in a unit on Air Transportation. The problem, which had arisen in connection with the planning of a model airport, took the form of the question, "What do they do at the airport?" Working on this problem involved a wide variety of activities and materials (1) Reading materials were collected on such topics as types of airports, development of airports services provided, plans and needs of airports, and factors determining location of airports (2) Pictures of airports were secured to note layouts and facilities (3) Oral and written reports were prepared and shared with the group (4) Many discussions were held in which collected information was appraised, organized, and put to use (5) Scrapbooks were prepared to show various aspects of life at the airport (6) A visit was made to an airport in order to secure information on specific problems (7) Airport personnel were interviewed (8) A pilot and stewardess were invited to come to the class and discuss specific problems with the group (9) Thank you notes were written to the visitors and to those at the airport who had helped (10) Motion pictures, slides, and film strips about airports were utilized (11) News items about airports were collected (12) Simple sketches and plans were made for a model airport (13) Models of buildings such as hangars and a dispatch tower were made (14) Layouts were made for the runways (15) Activities and services of the airport were dramatized (16) Poems and stories about airports were composed and shared (17) Pictures were drawn depicting life at the airport (Several additional examples are contained in the sample units in the Appendix, pages 441-513) Through the use of varied activities the teacher provided many opportunities for each child to participate in the development of the unit

Learning is improved when children grasp the relationships between materials and activities they are using and the purposes they are attempting to achieve. It is not enough simply to use a variety of activities and materials in the social studies. A basic step in problem solving is to consider activities and materials needed to achieve purposes. Thus, such skills as outlining, letter writing, reading, and interviewing, or such materials as film strips, charts, maps, and globes should be considered in the light of purposes set by the group. Types of questions that may well be considered in group planning are 'What sources of information can be used to solve this problem?' 'Which procedures will be most effective?' 'What materials are needed?' Problem solving is more effective and transfer of learning appears to

be facilitated when consideration is given to group discussion of procedures to use in order to achieve significant purposes (See Chapter 6 for a detailed discussion of group planning and problem solving)

In addition to group planning on materials and activities needed to solve a given problem, attention should also be given to skills and their utilization as specific difficulties arise. The following excerpt from a discussion illustrates how one group considered difficulties in letter writing which arose in a unit on Air Transportation

Teacher What are some of the problems you had in planning your letters to the aviation company?

Child A I had a hard time starting mine

Child B I got mixed up on the heading

Child C I wasn't sure of just what we should ask for

Child D I had the same trouble as Mary

Child E I wasn't sure how to end my letter

Child A What form should we use to address the envelope?

The above problems led to a purposeful analysis of letter-writing techniques. Difficulties mentioned by the children were listed on the blackboard and used to direct a careful study of letter writing. The need was vital to the children and the subsequent practice which they had in the organization and writing of letters made sense to them. Similar examples may be drawn with reference to the use of maps, outlines, reading materials, and other resources.

Learning is improved when there is continuity in the child's educational experiences. The past experiences of the child constitute his frame of reference for meeting new situations. Concepts and generalizations gleaned from previous experiences are the child's tools for thinking and acting as he meets new situations and has new experiences, there are no others for him to use. As he matures and encounters similar concepts in varied situations his background of understanding grows and develops. Continuous growth can be brought about through guidance that helps the child to relate one experience to another, and to discover the relationships that exist between them. Transfer of learning is optimum when children's past experiences are related to new experiences through a consideration of common ideas, skills, generalizations, attitudes and feeling tones. This principle is significant for planning learning experiences from day to day, from unit to unit during the year, and from year to year as children progress through school. Continuity of experience from day to day can be secured through group planning and evaluation in which children

consider needs and problems as they arise, and draw upon past experiences in order to make plans to solve them. Continuity from unit to unit can be achieved by having each new unit develop out of interests and problems that have arisen in the preceding unit. This problem is discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

The selection of units, reading materials, art media, materials of construction, and audio visual materials must be carried out with continuity of learning in mind, each of the foregoing should be considered in the light of children's past experiences in order to determine if the time is ripe for their use. Similarly, in the evaluation of learning the teacher should appraise the development of interests, concepts, and attitudes in the light of past experiences. Growth in various aspects of social learning, such as cooperation or leadership qualities may seem remarkable in one child because of his background or previous experiences, whereas for another child the same type of behavior may not be unusual at all. By evaluating in terms of past experiences the teacher can get more reliable evidence on the rate and extent of growth that is taking place within each child.

Social learning is improved when a democratic group atmosphere is developed and maintained. Each child needs to be a member of the group—to feel secure, have prestige, and contribute to group activities. Democratic values should permeate all phases of the program. Group processes involving cooperative planning, discussion, action, and sharing and evaluation should characterize classroom procedure. Research studies⁸ suggest that democratic atmospheres are more conducive to wholesome social learning than are authoritarian or laissez faire atmospheres. For example, in studies of children's clubs, teacher-pupil groups, and activity programs, it has been found that acceptance of responsibility, cooperation, interest, and group relationships are on a much higher level in democratic groups. Negative behavior, hostility, rejection of others, and competition are greater in autocratic groups.⁹ As pointed out in Chapter 1, democratic values and processes should be a part of all phases of the school program.

⁸ A. Bavelas and Kurt Lewin, "Training in Democratic Leadership," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 37, 115-119, January 1942.

⁹ C. B. Stendler, D. Damrin, and A. Haines, "Studies in Cooperation and Competition I: The Effects of Working for Group and Individual Rewards on the Social Climate of Children's Groups," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 79, 173-197, December 1951; K. Lewin, R. Lippitt, and R. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10, 271-299, May 1939; R. Lippitt, "An Experimental Study of the Effect of Democratic and Authoritarian Group Atmospheres," *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare*, No. 16, 3, 43-195, 1940.

Learning is improved when consideration is given to the child's developing self-concept. By self-concept is meant the child's picture, or view of himself.¹⁰ The child's self-concept conditions his response to others, his perception of the behavior of others, and his attitudes toward others. These in turn, of course, influence the reaction of others toward the child. He is most aware of the characteristics of others which he recognizes as characteristic of himself. He may feel that others behave in certain ways for the same reason that he does. His fears, joys, and feelings of sympathy are his basis for understanding similar emotional responses of others, provided he has the capacity to give of himself to others—to show empathy for others.

If the child views himself as a competent person in group activities, he will tend to approach them eagerly. If he feels that he can be a leader of his peers (and a follower in certain situations), if he feels that he can play a role successfully in various activities, and if he is beginning to understand his strengths and weaknesses and has not developed negative feelings about them, then he, typically, will approach others in a positive manner.

On the other hand, if antisocial behavior and attitudes such as bullying others, not taking turns, intolerance, and discrimination against minority groups are in evidence, these may indicate the development of an unwholesome self-concept. If such is the case, the teacher should plan for the child's participation in dramatic play, construction, discussion, and other activities so that he can learn to work with others in a manner satisfying to himself and to the group. Many successful and satisfying experiences with others tend to help the child develop a more positive concept of his potentialities. In turn, the child's behavior, typically, will show improvement because he will view his role in group activities in a more constructive manner. In short, it seems that children with an unwholesome self-concept tend to work in negative ways with others, while children with more socially mature self-concepts get along better with others.

The child's self-concept changes as he has new experiences and reorganizes his perception of himself. As children take part in social experiences they play new roles, gain greater insight into their strengths and weaknesses, and develop new values. Some will grow in self-understanding more rapidly than others, some will be more objective than others; and some will accept themselves with more "emo-

¹⁰ For a detailed discussion see Jersild, *Child Psychology* (4th ed.), 1954; and D. Snygg and A. W. Combs, *Individual Behavior*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949, and A. T. Jersild, *In Search of Self*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952.

tional grace" than others. But each will be building up a picture of himself and his potentialities which will greatly condition his relationships with others.

The child's feelings play a major role in his development of a self-concept. Many satisfying experiences with others are essential so that the child can think of himself as a successful member of the group. A series of failures typically leads to a lack of confidence and a tendency to feel inferior in certain situations. Whether the experience is a success or a failure, each child needs to express his feelings and to consider his behavior in the light of the feelings involved. To be sure, there must be self-control to safeguard the welfare of others and to avoid "emotional license." But guilt feelings about one's emotions, or denial of feelings, or the persistent hiding of one's feelings, should be avoided. The teacher, by listening and showing sincere respect and concern for each child, can be of assistance in guiding the child to better understand his feelings and to accept emotions as a normal aspect of experiences. As the child grows in his ability to understand, to accept, and to respect his own feelings, he will develop a clearer and more wholesome self concept. Increasing self control and socially acceptable self direction will be related outcomes of such growth.

As children mature, they need to develop increasingly more realistic attitudes of self-acceptance as well as self understanding. Self understanding and self-acceptance are closely related, they involve an awareness of one's strengths and weaknesses, the ability to face reality whether favorable or unfavorable, the ability to adjust when the environment cannot (or should not) be changed, and a willingness to benefit from self criticism and the criticisms of others.

There is evidence to indicate that realistic self acceptance is related to acceptance of others. For example, Trent¹¹ reported that Negro children with positive attitudes toward themselves were friendly rather than hostile toward other Negroes and toward whites, those with rejecting self attitudes tended to reject other Negro children and white children. Similarly, self understanding appears to be related to understanding of others. Thus Norman¹² reported a relationship between the ability to rate oneself and to rate others, and

¹¹ R. Trent *The Correlates of Self Acceptance Among Negro Children* Doctoral Study Teachers College Columbia University 1953

¹² R. D. Norman "The Interrelationships Among Acceptance Rejection Self Other Identity, Insight Into Self and Realistic Perception of Others" *Journal of Social Psychology*, 37 205-237, 1943

Sears¹³ reported that individuals who are less aware of certain undesirable traits within themselves tended to rate others more harshly than did individuals with greater insight into themselves. It appears that the old dictum *Know thyself*, when coupled with *Accept yourself and Be yourself*, is a sound guideline to the improvement of social competence.

We can gain considerable insight into the child's self-concept through planned observation and study of his behavior in various activities. Guiding questions such as the following should be kept in mind: Is the child coming to view himself as a successful working member of the group? Is he confident in group situations? Does he look upon himself as a follower or a leader, or sometimes as one then the other? What role does he take in dramatic play, discussion, and other group activities? What does he believe to be his strengths and weaknesses, and how does he feel about them? We also should note the child's expression of feelings in art work, dramatic play, discussion, and spontaneous remarks. Through small group discussion and interviews it is possible to get clues to the child's concept of himself by making a statement such as "I understand you feel like this" and then encouraging him to continue. Or, we may complete the sentence, stating how we think he feels, and have him add to it, alter it, or correct it. Leading questions such as "What did you think was right to do? What do you like (or dislike) most about yourself?" are also helpful with more mature children. Above all, we must create a permissive atmosphere in which children can and will express themselves. And we must demonstrate an acceptance of, and interest in, each child and his feelings and thus free him to share with us what inner concepts and values really "make him tick."

The foregoing guidelines are of basic importance in all phases of the social studies program. There are two major instructional tasks, however, that require additional attention—the development of *attitudes* and *understandings*.

GUIDING THE CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDES

Children's attitudes are acquired tendencies to respond in a certain way toward persons, groups, and objects.¹⁴ They may be positive

¹³ R. R. Sears, "Experimental Studies of Projection I Attribution of Traits," *Journal of Social Psychology* 7 151-163 597-598 1936

¹⁴ G. M. Blair, R. S. Stewart, and R. H. Simpson, *Educational Psychology*, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954, pp. 192-193.

or negative, and they are learned through experiences that pack an emotional punch. They serve as emotional drives to behavior, and may facilitate or inhibit learning.¹³ For example, the child with a favorable attitude toward an object typically approaches it more eagerly than does a child with an unfavorable attitude.

Attitudes are deep-lying learnings based on experiences, and are part of the child's self-concept. They condition what the child sees, reads, and hears, they also affect how he feels about what he sees, reads, and hears. Thus some children may see a threat to their own status and have hostile feelings when they meet a newcomer, while others have more positive feelings because they see newcomers in a different light. Because attitudes condition what children see, read, and hear, some children find reinforcement for attitudes they possess by noticing or perceiving only certain aspects of behavior in others. Individuals "who are always looking for trouble" illustrate this point very well.

Attitudes develop in several ways.¹⁴ Some develop gradually as a result of a series of experiences, a favorable attitude toward a minority group may develop because of happy play experiences with individuals in the group. Other attitudes develop as a result of a single vivid experience, hostility toward a minority group may result from a fight. Children learn or "take on" many attitudes from association with their parents, their peers, and persons in the community whom they admire and respect. Expressions of attitudes made by parents and individuals in groups in which children seek status are particularly potent. Unless the child accepts their attitudes, he is usually rejected. Some specific attitudes, such as hostility toward a child in a minority group, may develop because of a general attitude that has been "picked up" toward the minority group. Some attitudes result from an association made between poor conditions in which people live and traits or qualities which they possess.¹⁵ Thus some individuals who visit slums associate laziness, or lack of cleanliness, with those who live in slum areas and begin the development of a negative attitude. Some attitudes are developed or changed as the child identifies himself with

¹³ American Association of School Administrators *Educating for American Citizenship* Washington D C National Education Association, 1954 pp 210-230.

¹⁴ Ross Stagner, "Attitudes" *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (W. S. Monroe Ed.) New York The Macmillan Company, 1950, pp 77-84, and D B Harris, "How Children Learn Interests, Motives, and Attitudes," *Learning and Instruction*, Forty ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education Part I Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1950 pp 129-155.

¹⁵ C. B. Stendler and W. E. Martin *Intergroup Education in Kindergarten Primary Grades* New York The Macmillan Company, 1953 pp 4-18.

persons and incidents in motion pictures, TV and radio programs, and reading materials. The nature of the child's personality conditions his acceptance and expression of attitudes. Insecure, distrustful, and resentful children appear to have more prejudices than do secure, happy children.

It is not possible to develop attitudes or to change them by any rule of-thumb procedure. Many approaches must be used as a given group is studied and individual needs of children are discovered.

Helping children achieve wholesome adjustment is of first importance. In the Detroit study, emotional adjustment was found to be the key to the improvement of civic attitudes in many instances.¹⁸ Others have reported that negative attitudes are more prevalent among maladjusted children than among well-adjusted children.¹⁹ Conditions within school must be such that children are not put on the defensive, are not antagonized, and are not put under undue emotional strain.²⁰ Wholesome attitudes grow out of emotionally satisfying experiences, and their development flourishes in situations in which children can make satisfying emotional adjustment. The teacher, therefore, should be alert to evidences of good and poor adjustment and should work actively to improve the adjustment of children as needs arise.

Through the many and varied experiences provided in the social studies, the teacher can guide children into activities in which they can earn prestige, feel secure, develop a feeling of *belongingness*, cooperate with others, give and take, and learn to share. Group influences, which are potent in the development of attitudes, can be used constructively to build standards, improve behavior, and redirect negative feelings toward others into positive channels. Children can actually *live* certain attitudes as they work together. For example, if a child needs to learn respect for others, opportunities can be provided to show respect in daily activities, to observe it in his peers, and learn about its significance in the lives of others as well as his own. When children work with others in an atmosphere of mutual respect and acceptance, they experience feelings of satisfaction and thus learn emotionally that an attitude of respect for others is worth while. Detailed suggestions for guiding this type of group work are given in Chapter 6.

¹⁸ E. F. Pfleeger and G. I. Weston, *Emotional Adjustment: A Key to Good Citizenship* (Detroit: Wayne University, 1953).

¹⁹ D. B. Harris, H. G. Gough and W. E. Martin, "Children's Ethnic Attitudes: I. Relationship to Certain Personality Factors," *Child Development*, 21, 83-91, 1950.

²⁰ A. T. Jersild and Associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum*, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946, pp. 118-119.



Los Angeles

What attitudes might be involved in situations such as this one in which problems of sharing and taking turns arise? How might such situations be utilized to improve attitudes?

The behavior of those who guide children must reflect positive attitudes. Parents and teachers need to know their own attitudes; they must be careful about remarks that are made, facial grimaces, expressions of likes and dislikes, anecdotes and jokes that are told, and any other evidences of negative attitudes—since children are quick to imitate and take on such behavior as their own. When children themselves exhibit such behavior, they must be guided to express them selves in positive ways. Acceptance of such behavior by the teacher may be taken as tacit approval. Continuous emphasis upon and commendation of positive expression of attitudes toward others is imperative.

Knowledge and understanding properly learned and used, not just memorized, can lead to an improvement of attitudes.²¹ All of us have heard someone say, "Had I known that I would have acted differently." Or, "Is that so? Then we must do this." A common error,

²¹ American Association of School Administrators, *Educating for American Citizenship*, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1954, pp. 215-229.

however, in utilizing knowledge to improve attitudes is the assumption that telling is teaching, or that learning about something inevitably leads to a proper attitude toward it. This error can be avoided in part by centering the gathering of information in key problems as they arise, and by using information to interpret the behavior of others and to solve emotionally charged problems. In addition, children need guidance in interpreting facts in the light of sound values and ideals. In short, information must be put to use and interpreted in situations vital to children if any change in attitudes is to result.

Community activities should be viewed as a part of the attitude-building program. Firsthand participation by children in community activities, cooperation of parents and other adults in developing positive attitudes, use of resource persons in the school program, and use of community resources by the school are illustrative of the many possibilities (See Chapter 8). Festivals, pageants, holidays, and special events in which individuals of many different backgrounds participate are helpful. The spirit in which such enterprises are carried on and the skill with which children are made a part of them determine their contribution to attitudinal changes. Properly utilized, they help to promote attitudes of loyalty, respect for others, and ideals of patriotism.

Symbolism and ceremony have been used down through the ages to develop ideals and attitudes. When developed meaningfully with children, and approached in a way that develops clear insight into their significance, the following have been found to be helpful: flag ceremonies, observance of holidays, pledges and codes, pageants, assemblies, musical programs that emphasize patriotism, exhibits, special TV and radio programs, trips to historical shrines, anniversaries, films and film strips, and recordings. The foregoing contribute to the development of attitudes and ideals to the extent that children identify themselves with them and appreciate their significance in their own lives and in the lives of others. The point also must be made that the manner in which adults approach and participate in such activities greatly conditions the child's learning.

As children mature they tend to accept attitudes that seem to be the result of their own thinking.²² They need many opportunities to discover positive examples on their own. Discussion, group planning, group decision making, creative expression, actual participation in ceremonies and community activities and other skillfully guided enterprises may be used to help them make discoveries that are their own.

²² Blair, Stewart and Simpson, *op. cit.*, pp. 204-205

Follow-up activities should be provided in which their discoveries can be applied, evaluated, and used again

Experiences designed to kindle the imagination to create up-building emotional responses, to arouse positive feelings, should not be overlooked Poetry, stories, drama, other types of literature, motion pictures, folk games, art, music, and other aesthetic experiences can be used to create a *feeling tone* that gives warmth, vibrance, and other positive emotional reactions to ideals and attitudes Unless such feelings are developed, learning of a permanent nature will not be secured This is one of the major reasons why related experiences in art, music, literature and the like are so important in the social studies

Individual and group guidance techniques need to be used in some instances to develop wholesome attitudes and to redirect behavior into more positive channels ²³ Individual counseling and small-group discussion can be utilized as individual needs are discovered Presentation of problem situations for group analysis, and completion by the group of a story begun by the teacher are effective with the entire class if related to problems that have arisen Group standards and codes of behavior developed prior to field trips, interviews, and programs help to guide expression of attitudes in a positive way Simple attitude inventories can be used as a basis for individual counseling and group discussion Case conferences in which a particular child's difficulties are analyzed by the teacher and other school workers are helpful in unusual or extremely difficult cases In some instances, specialists may need to be called in to assist in the development of a long term program of therapy Whenever such techniques are used, they should be tied in with on going learning experiences related to specific problems of children, and personalized

Activities such as dramatic play and role playing afford children opportunities to improve attitudes release tension, identify themselves with others, and find a positive role in group activities Children may be guided to try new attitudes toward others as roles are played, and they may gradually be helped to take on more positive attitudes, or reject negative ones An incident involving a negative attitude may be "acted out," discussed, and re enacted in a positive way Or, after discussion of an incident a positive portrayal of a solution may be tried Or, through role playing, a problem situation may be dramatized creatively with a solution emerging as children portray what to them seems fair and reasonable Or, children may act out roles in

²³ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development *Guidance in the Curriculum*. Washington D.C. National Education Association, 1955, pp. 50-58



Alameda County

Through dramatic play children reveal inner thoughts and feelings as they play different roles. What attitudes toward home and family life might be revealed in a situation such as this? What should the teacher's reaction be to differences in attitudes?

preparation for a situation they are about to face. Or other situations may be dramatized depending upon the attitudes or problems needing emphasis. Meanwhile, the teacher observes analytically to secure clues as to children's feelings, needs, and values. These clues form the basis for discussion, planning, evaluation and follow-up activities.

Different roles should be taken by children. They should not play the same role every time, so that the feelings of others in given situations will become more real to them, and the needs, problems, joys, and sorrows of others will be brought closer.²⁴ Thus a child with one background can play the role of another, a leader can be a follower, or a child in one situation can take the part of a child in another. In selecting roles, a child should not be given one for which he is unfitted, or which he is unwilling to try. Emphasis throughout should

²⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 75-76

be upon a sincere expression of the roles being enacted so that each child gets close to the feelings of the characters he portrays at different times. Once the child grasps how others feel, he is inclined to take on more positive attitudes toward them.

Certain procedures are helpful in dealing with examples of prejudice and negative incidents found in reading materials, films, or reports of experiences made by children. After summarizing the incident and noting the main details, possible causes should be discussed and effects upon the parties involved should be considered. Children should try to develop a feeling for the other fellow, "to get inside his shoes." The solution (or a proposed solution) should be evaluated in the light of fairness, respect for the persons involved, and other pertinent values. Specific relationships to situations in the children's own lives should be clarified. Finally, immediate application of generalizations should be made by the group to situations that are vital to them. In short, the problem solving process outlined in Chapter 6 should be used to improve attitudes as human relations problems arise.

Each unit of work offers opportunities to develop wholesome attitudes toward others. For example, units on the Home and Family can be developed so that children discover many likenesses and common needs, and, at the same time, understand differences among families in size, composition, types of homes, work of fathers, work of mothers, church affiliations, and the like. Yet each family is important, necessary, and vital to its members. Children can be helped to understand that what is natural to them may be queer to others, and what is queer to them is natural to others. Each family wants to be respected and accepted by others, just as the child wants his own family to be accepted.

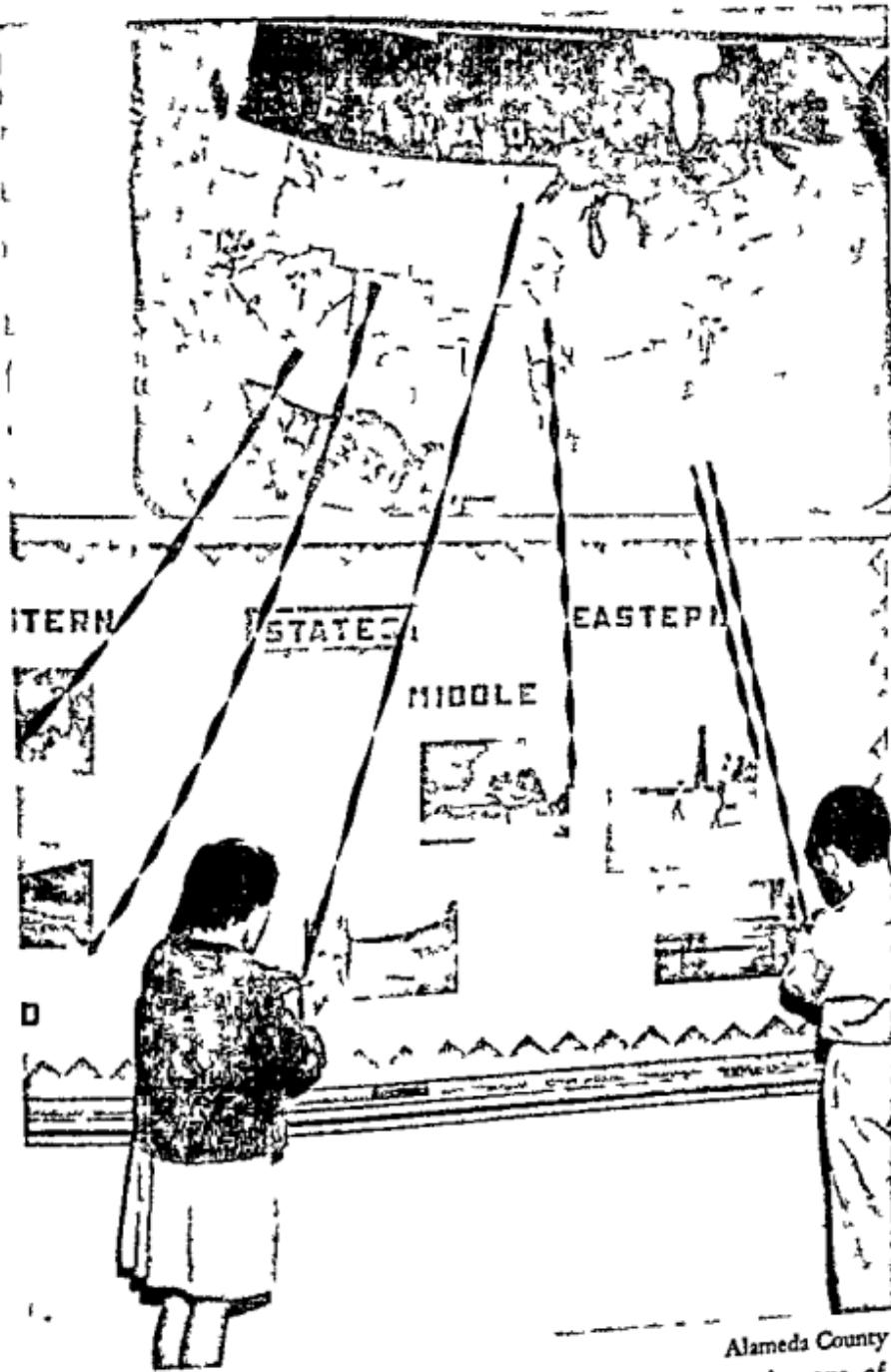
In units on Our Community, children can begin to understand and accept differences among people around them and their interdependence. Emphasis should be given to understandings and appreciations such as the following. Different types of work and services are essential. We share many different things together (parks, playgrounds, stores), and all have a responsibility to make the community a good place in which to live. Many different kinds of people live and work together in our community, and share what they make with different kinds of people in other communities. Rules must be made and followed so that all may have justice and equal chances. Communities vary and depend upon each other for food, shelter, and clothing. Ideas and contributions of one community are shared with others. There is really no one best kind of community although we

may prefer one kind. The many different kinds of communities (farming, fishing, manufacturing) enable us to share and live more effectively in our own.

Units on Our State, Region, or Nation provide children with an opportunity to discover the contributions of others, the common needs, the great range of differences, examples of sharing and the like on a wider scale. Strength through diversity, power through teamwork, and unity through democratic values should be brought home realistically as reading materials, films, pictures, and other resources are used. A solid beginning can be made in developing appreciation of the contributions of great people of varying ancestry and background, interdependence among regions, respect for the supreme worth of the individual, and the need for people of varying capabilities. The efforts of many to preserve and extend the rights and opportunities of all people from early days down to the present should be given dramatic emphasis.

Units on Mexico, South American Countries, Africa, or other cultures should be developed in such a way that quaint, bizarre, exotic, and rare objects and persons are not the main emphasis. The significant ways of living of a people should be considered in the light of present conditions, the traditions and environment of the people. Children should be guided to discover and understand why differences and likenesses exist, to identify themselves with the people and their problems, and to appreciate the attempts that have been made to solve these problems. The need for education, housing, hospitals and the like cannot be overlooked, this should be understood in the light of conditions, past developments, and current efforts that are being made to provide them. The rosy, gay, travel bureau picture of village life must be tempered by facts that are realistic and descriptive, yet not disparaging. Invidious comparisons, ridicule, and jesting should be avoided by giving emphasis to what actually exists and why it exists. Unique ways of doing things can then be appreciated in a more meaningful setting.

Certain points should be observed in all units of work. If children have gained poor impressions or had unfavorable contacts with others, teachers should provide wholesome contacts and opportunities to observe others under favorable conditions. Emphasis should be given to the understanding that members of minority groups are human beings, too, with feelings, wants and problems similar to our own. Interpretation and explanation of negative instances and conditions may be used to help children understand that behavior is caused, a



Alameda County

Children must go beyond simply learning about the contributions of others, they should appreciate and understand the value of differences—strength through diversity—in our country. What attitudes and appreciations might be involved in the planning and arrangement of a display such as this?

change in causes leads to a change in behavior. Reasons for differences that seem queer can usually be found in traditions, customs, special needs, and conditions. Reality here and now, such as living conditions of certain minority groups which lead some to develop prejudices, should not be overlooked by idealizing the faraway, reasons for the conditions and efforts to overcome them must be explored. Individuals from minority groups should not be favored or exalted even though their unique contributions are appreciated. All need acceptance and understanding, but not at the expense of others. Stereotypes, misconceptions, erroneous ideas, unintended jibes and the like in reading materials, films and other resources, must be checked critically and clarified. Children themselves can learn to make critical analyses and suggest positive examples. Field trips should be carried out to obtain ideas and understanding, not just "to go slumming." When spokesmen representative of different groups come to discuss questions and topics, they should be received as experts, not as curiosities, their nationality should be regarded as incidental. Problem-solving skills should be used systematically, and critical-thinking abilities encouraged. Children who are experienced in analyzing problems fairly are not so prone to accept stereotyped and negative attitudes. Finally, emphasis on democratic behavior and values as outlined in Chapter 1, and social attitudes in group work as outlined in Chapter 6, should be a part of each unit of work and daily living in the classroom.

GUIDING THE CHILD'S DEVELOPMENT OF CONCEPTS AND GENERALIZATIONS

The development of clear concepts and generalizations is essential to clear thinking, problem solving, and effective group action. Hazy meanings can lead only to hazy thinking. Problems cannot be attacked and solved if a person does not have a grasp of the factors and ideas involved. Communication with others is impossible if the specific meanings of various terms are not clear. Group action breaks down if inadequate understanding of issues and problems is present. Concept building is a primary problem of those who guide the learning of children in the elementary school.²⁵

This problem is of special significance in the social studies because of the complex ideas and meanings involved in human relationships. The understandings involved in such units as The Home,

²⁵ John U. Michaelis, "Current Problems of Elementary Teachers in the Social Studies," *Social Studies*, 38 221-225 May, 1947

Community, Our State, Early American Life, Mexico, Africa, Aviation, and Communication are diverse and varied. Each unit has special concepts of its own that children must understand and develop if meaningful learning is to take place. These concepts are encountered in discussion, reading, audio visual materials, and in the many different activities in each unit of work. In addition, the different backgrounds of experience which children possess make for differing interpretations, differing insights, and varying misconceptions.

WORDS, CONCEPTS AND GENERALIZATIONS

Brownell and Hendrickson²⁶ point out that a distinction should be made between arbitrary associations, concepts, and generalizations. Arbitrary associations are simply the terms or names given to various items or qualities, such as *red*, *paper*, *Mississippi*. Such terms are taught through meaningful association and repetitive practice, so that children can use them accurately and quickly. Children should be given help as errors arise, meanings of terms should be clarified, practice should be provided, and maintenance should be brought about through functional use.

Concepts are on a higher mental level than are arbitrary associations. Brownell and Hendrickson state that a concept is 'more than a "word"':—it is an abstraction that applies to a class or group of objects which have certain qualities in common.²⁷ While arbitrary associations apply to a particular object, concepts apply to a class of objects. Thus, *mountains* as a concept refers to a general class of objects and not to a particular object.²⁸ The child's understanding of *mountains* depends upon the experiences he has had, ways in which he has distinguished mountains from hills, differentiations he has made between various ranges of mountains and so forth. In the social studies, in addition to such concepts as *mountains*, *plains*, and *rivers*, there are more intangible concepts such as *democracy*, *tolerance*, and *cooperation*, that are generally more difficult for children to grasp.

²⁶ W. A. Brownell and G. Hendrickson, *How Children Learn Information Concepts and Generalizations*, *Learning and Instruction*, Forty ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Part I Chicago University of Chicago Press 1949 pp. 92-128.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 106 (Quoted by permission of the Society).

²⁸ Brownell and Hendrickson (*op. cit.* p. 106) state that it is difficult to draw sharp distinctions between them. However as arbitrary associations such as *river* or *town* take on meaning and the child is able to apply them to a class of objects they are properly called concepts. Thus the major differences appear to be applicability to a single object or class of objects, extent of meaning involved and degree of abstraction.

The meaning of a given concept will vary from no meaning on the one hand to rather full and rich meaning on the other.²⁹ The degree of meaning a given child possesses depends upon the richness of his experiences and upon his maturity. Furthermore, concept-building is a gradual process in which increasingly higher levels of development, coupled with rich experiences, bring about steady growth of meaning. For example, a five-year-old's concept of *cooperation* (even though the term is not used) may mean sharing toys and tools with others. In Grade I, he may discover that two or three boys and girls working together can make things for the playhouse more effectively than can one child working alone. Later he may extend his concept of cooperation as he learns about people working together in the community in building houses, transporting goods, and keeping the community clean. Many insights and meanings will come from working with other boys and girls in dramatic play, games, and group activities. As other lands and peoples are studied, the child may discover ways in which individuals in other places work together to secure food, shelter, and clothing. Still later, the meaning of cooperation as a factor in world peace may emerge as a basic concept, or a generalization, in international planning.³⁰

Generalizations are typically on a still higher mental level than are concepts. Brownell and Hendrickson state that a generalization is "any verbalized formulation of a relationship which is of broad applicability."³¹ Thus generalizations may be laws, rules, principles, conclusions, inferences, and the like. Examples in the social studies are

People adapt themselves to conditions in the environment

People secure food, clothing, and shelter from the resources in their environment

Increasing interdependence among the people of the world has brought about a need for international institutions

Generalizations involve the relationships between concepts, according to Brownell and Hendrickson, and they grow out of problem solving carried on by the learner.³² As children attack various problems, they discover relationships between concepts and they begin to form a generalization. As new situations arise and similar relationships are encountered, the generalization takes more definite form and becomes more clearly developed.

²⁹ *Ibid.*

³⁰ The distinction between concept and generalization is not sharp in this instance.

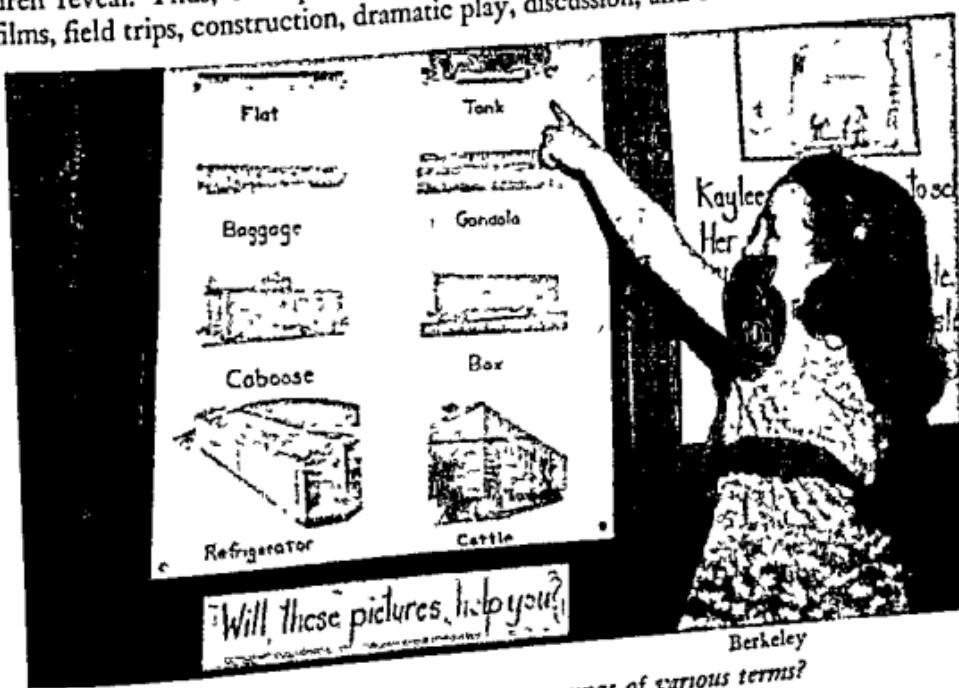
³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 117. (Quoted by permission of the Society.)

³² *Ibid.*, p. 119

PROCEDURES FOR DEVELOPING CONCEPTS AND GENERALIZATIONS

The development of concepts and generalizations requires a program of guided problem-solving experiences for children. Because concepts and generalizations are abstract and largely verbal, children need many opportunities to use them and to express them in discussion, dramatic play, reporting, and writing. Guidance should be given in problem solving so that children themselves discover relationships and thereby form generalizations. Children also need to encounter the same concepts and generalizations at succeedingly higher levels of development so that they can extend, enrich, and deepen the meanings involved in them.

An effective approach to concept building is to consider the specific experiences in a given unit of work and to determine the concepts and understandings that are of vital significance. Their value may be determined by the frequency of their use in the unit, the needs for their use which arise in class, and the misconceptions which children reveal. Thus, concepts which are needed in reading materials, films, field trips, construction, dramatic play, discussion, and other ex-



How can you use pictures to develop the meanings of various terms?

periences should be noted and developed as shown in the following examples

In a unit on The Farm, a group of primary children developed and used such concepts as *silo*, *corral*, *feeding*, *milking*, *brush*, *bottle*, *calf*, *seeds*, *garden*, *barn*, *chute*, *hay*, *fodder* through visiting a dairy farm to see a *silo*, *corral*, *barn*, and the *feeding* and *milking* of cows, engaging in and discussing dramatic play related to *chores* on the farm, constructing and using *corrals* and *barns* in dramatic play, collecting *seeds*, planting them, and caring for a *garden*, finding out how *plants* grow with different types of *soil* and varying amounts of *sunshine* and *water*, reading and listening to stories related to life on the farm, expressing group and individual experiences through art, rhythms, discussion, group chart making, and songs, and seeing a film and slides on farm life. All of the foregoing were used in connection with significant questions in the unit.

Some illustrative generalizations which grew out of these experiences as expressed by children were

We get milk and food from farms

Farmers help us in lots of ways

Life is different on a farm

You get up early and work hard

Farmers sell their stuff in town and use the money to buy things they need

An upper grade group in a unit on Petroleum as a Basic Industry in the Community developed and used the following concepts *refinery*, *pipeline*, *storage tank*, *oil wells*, *tankers*, *cable*, *derrick*, *diesel*, *pulley*, *processing*, *refining*, *retailing*, *wholesaling*, *industry*, *driller*, *drilling*, *gasoline*, *butane*, *petroleum*, *kerosene*, and *walking beam*. The foregoing were developed through the use of pictures, excursions, reading, and discussion. They were put to use in making murals, in construction, in discussion, and in reading. At the end of the unit an exhibit was made which contained pictures, models, and objects illustrative of many of the concepts the children had learned. Many of the terms were used in a scrapbook which the class developed as a group project. Included in it were pictures and brief descriptions of the many different things the children had learned while the unit was under way. The following excerpt is illustrative.

On our excursion to the oil fields we saw many things. Men were drilling a well. A new steel derrick was being built to pump oil from the ground. Large field tanks had been built to store the oil. Many oil trucks





Los Angeles

How do firsthand experiences in processing materials help to develop accurate concepts?

stood by to be loaded at the loading rack. Railroad tracks had been laid so that the tank cars could come up to load oil.

Some illustrative generalizations developed by children in this unit were:

Many machines are used in producing gas and oil.

Refining and selling oil is big business.

Many workers are needed to get oil from the field to the gas station.

Petroleum products are used in many industries.

Oil is produced in many other places besides the United States.

Group sharing of experiences through discussion, reporting, and story-telling aids in concept building; use should also be made of pictures, models, and objects to clarify specific meanings. Children who have taken trips to places being studied can tell about them and share pictures and photographs with the class. Materials brought by children that relate to concepts in the unit can be discussed, demonstrated, and used to increase understanding. For example, during a study of Mexico one child brought pottery, clothing, and jewelry. In a study of China, two children brought and demonstrated the use

of the *ebru*, *temple bells*, and a *gong* which had been loaned by their parents. Another child brought a series of pictures on Chinese boats and pointed out the differences between *junks*, *sampans*, and other types of Chinese boats.

Various shades of meaning can be developed through the use of materials drawn from literature, rhythms, art, and music. A reading of stirring tales of Daniel Boone extends the meaning of *scout*, *defending the fort*, and *adventures of early explorers*. Records of songs sung by the pioneers as they trekked westward, and carefully selected pictures which depict the joys, sorrows, hopes, aspirations and tragedies of the pioneers as they established homes and towns, give overtones of feeling to terms such as *husking bees*, *clearing*, *attack*, *homemaking*, *hardship*, *courageous*, and *fearless* that can be secured in no other way. Similarly, folk dances give children an opportunity to develop clearer understanding of the ways in which the pioneers enjoyed themselves and secured recreation. Such qualitative aspects of concept building must not be overlooked.

Children need opportunities in each unit to enrich and extend concepts that they have previously encountered, as well as to develop new ones. For example, in a well-planned study of Colonial and Pioneer Life, such new concepts as these will be learned: *town meeting*, *dame schools*, *church services*, *food*, *clothing*, *candle-making*, *ways of travel*, *utensils*, and *weapons*. At the same time, children should extend and enrich their understanding of the ways in which the early Americans met their needs for *food*, *shelter*, and *clothing*. They should also extend their concepts of such basic social functions as *transportation*, *communications*, *conservation*, *education*, and *recreation*. In addition, they should gain increased insight into *adaptation to the environment*, *uses of natural resources*, and *cooperative action to meet common needs*.

Attention must be given to the development of specific concepts as experiences are developed. Activities carried on without discussion of purposes, planning, clarification of problems, and evaluation and reflection upon relationships to past experience and future action have little value. One child illustrated this point very well during an activity involving construction designed to develop concepts of a Mexican bazaar. In reply to a query as to what he was making, he said, "I'm just nailing boards to this box." He had not "been in on" the planning, discussion, and evaluation of the bazaar for use in the study of Mexico. In terms of his experiences he was truly just nailing boards. Concept-building experiences must be designed and guided to develop specific

meanings and the child must be included in planning and evaluation. For example, one class, during a visit to the harbor, clarified the meaning of *breakwater*, *warehouses*, *channels*, *pilot boat*, *tug*, *fire boat*, and *barge*. Another class saw a film on wheat farming for the specific purpose of learning about *plows*, *harrows*, *cultivators*, *seeders*, *tractors*, *combines*, and *granaries*. One group used pictures to clarify the meaning of *serape*, *reboso*, and *sombrero*. Another class used stereographs that showed *glaciers*, *plateaus*, *fjords*, and *crevasses*.

Both the number and the difficulty of the concepts must be controlled, too difficult, or too many concepts at one time may lead to misconceptions, confusion, disinterest in the topic, word-calling without meaning, and little or no comprehension. A long tedious list of ideas to check while on an excursion during a film, or in a dictionary results in superficial learning. Giving children assignments involving concepts which are too difficult and cannot be applied by them is a type of busy-work. It is better by far to select a few basic concepts that are needed by the group, and to guide their use in a variety of meaningful activities so that real understanding is developed.

Children should be guided toward the development of basic understandings and generalizations of major importance in daily living. The statement of understandings in the sample units in the Appendix illustrates those which are frequently included in units (see pages 461 and 485-486).

In cooperation with the statewide Social Studies Committee of the California School Supervisors Association, the writer developed a statement of basic understandings, or generalizations, that may grow out of experiences in the social studies. The words "may grow" are used advisedly, because each child develops his own generalizations as a result of interaction with his environment. The teacher's role is to provide guidance in problem solving so that the development of generalizations is facilitated. The following list, then, may serve as a general guide for the development of basic understandings as children engage in experiences in various units of work. Each major understanding is followed by illustrative generalizations growing out of units developed at successively higher levels of development.

BASIC UNDERSTANDINGS

A There is a high degree of interdependence among people everywhere.

- 1 Members of the family share, help, appreciate, and have responsibilities to one another, as do boys and girls in school.

- 2 Individuals and groups in the community carry out many responsibilities and depend upon one another
- 3 Primitive people depended upon one another and upon the resources in their environment
- 4 People in other places depend upon one another and upon natural resources near their homes for the satisfaction of the basic needs for food shelter, and clothing
- 5 People in other cultures have learned much from different races and have contributed much to our way of living (Cultural interdependence)
- 6 Technology, transportation, communication, production, and education are increasing man's interdependence
- 7 Man is striving to develop international institutions to promote better adjustment to the high degree of interdependence that exists in the world today

B People make adaptations to their environment and changing conditions, they change certain aspects of their environment

- 1 The family, school, and community make plans for varying conditions
- 2 Primitive people make many adaptations to their environment, but relatively few changes in their environment.
- 3 Plants and animals make adaptations to the environment.
- 4 Water, land, and air influence all living things
- 5 People adjust to varying conditions and settle in places as favorable as possible to the fulfillment of their basic needs
- 6 Man adjusts to changes in the environment over which he has no control.
- 7 Technology, transportation, communication, and education give man increasing control over his environment.
- 8 Through the development of such social institutions as the UN and UNESCO, men are endeavoring to adjust to changing conditions in the world today

C People learn their ways of living through experiences with other people.

- 1 We learn to work, play, and do many things in the home, school and community
- 2 Many common ways of doing things have developed in communities.
- 3 Primitive people who were separated into groups by natural barriers learned different ways of doing things.
- 4 Cultural interchange has resulted in many common ways of doing things and has improved our ways of living
- 5 Technology, transportation, communication and education have extended the possibility of common social experiences and progress throughout the world.

6 Many peoples are striving to secure equality of opportunity for social development in the world today

D Man works and uses the world's resources to satisfy his basic needs.

- 1 In our homes we get shelter, clothing, security, and food
- 2 People work together in communities to secure food, shelter, clothing, protection, education, and recreation
- 3 People who spend their lives in hunting, fishing, farming, or manufacturing satisfy their needs in different ways
- 4 Many different methods and materials are used in the production and distribution of goods and services
- 5 Basic social needs are met through communication family and group organizations, customs, laws and institutions
- 6 Technology, transportation communication, and education enable us to work more efficiently, to improve working conditions, and to use the world's resources more wisely
- 7 Through international cooperation, people throughout the world are working to develop new and better ways of living together

E People develop and improve social organizations in order to achieve a better life

- 1 We work together, develop rules accept responsibilities, and learn many useful things in the home and school
- 2 By living in communities states, and nations, people share many things and help each other in many ways
- 3 Primitive people formed simple social organizations in order to better their living conditions
- 4 People in other countries have formed social organizations to improve their ways of living
- 5 People develop group loyalties and values as they work together with common purposes
- 6 People secure protection for themselves by mutual agreement and by developing and changing laws rules and institutions
- 7 Technology, cultural interchange, and education are important factors in bringing about the need for and promotion of, change in our institutions
- 8 Man is striving to develop international institutions that will enable him to achieve a better life in the world today

F Through democracy man is striving to attain greater social, economic, and political justice

- 1 In home and school we learn to work in groups, to share, and to consider the rights of others
- 2 People plan, share, and work together in the community
- 3 Some aspects of democracy were evident in primitive cultures.
- 4 The foundations of democracy in our country were established by our forefathers from many lands.

- 5 Technology, transportation, communication, and education have extended the potentialities of democratic living throughout the world
- 6 All people of the world are fundamentally equal in worth, dignity, and sovereignty of personality
- 7 Equal justice, access to education, opportunity for work and fair pay, and maximum self direction and personal social development are possible for all in a democracy

This chapter has emphasized basic conditions of learning that should be stressed in all phases of the program. Special attention also has been given to attitudes, concepts, and generalizations because of their importance in social learning. We will next consider ways of planning units of work that are consistent with the ideas in this chapter and in preceding chapters.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

- 1 Discuss specific ways in which you can use the guidelines presented in the first part of this chapter to improve learning in the social studies. Which are most difficult to use? Which are easiest?
- 2 Discuss ways in which the social studies can help children to develop a wholesome self concept.
- 3 Try to recall social attitudes that you developed in the elementary school or at home as a youngster. In what ways have they changed? Which of the principles suggested in this chapter were operative?
- 4 Discuss negative attitudes that you have observed in children. What are some possible causes of them? What are some possible steps that can be taken to improve them? How can experiences in the social studies be utilized to improve them?
- 5 Discuss with an experienced teacher some of the attitudes toward other children, minority groups and care of property that are of major concern at the present time. What appear to be the causes of them? What principles and techniques are helpful in improving them? Which of the techniques suggested in this chapter have been used?
- 6 Discuss the techniques outlined in this chapter for building concepts and generalizations. In what ways can you use them? How can you prevent misconceptions from developing?
- 7 Recall misconceptions that you have corrected during recent years. How did you correct them? How could they have been prevented from developing? Which of the principles and procedures suggested in this chapter were operative?
- 8 Discuss concept building with an experienced teacher. What pro-

cedures are most helpful? Which of the procedures suggested in this chapter have been used?

9 Discuss the generalizations outlined at the end of this chapter. Outline specific and practical ways in which you can contribute to their development in a unit of work of your choice.

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PLANNING UNITS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A unit in the social studies may be defined as a carefully developed series of childlike experiences related to a particular topic and designed to contribute to the achievement of the purposes of the social studies. A well-planned unit involves the use of socially significant content and a variety of rich experiences such as reading, using audio-visual aids, taking excursions, constructing objects, engaging in dramatic play, processing materials, and expressing thoughts and feelings creatively through art, music, rhythms, and literature. The content of the unit may be drawn from geography, history, science, art, music, and other subject matter fields as needed to contribute to social learning. Both the content and activities are related to specific needs, problems, and interests of children and are used in such a way that they contribute to the achievement of clearly stated purposes. The organization of experiences and materials into units facilitates the child's learning significant relationships, concepts, and processes in a given area of experience.

In a well planned social studies program units are no longer designed in terms of isolated subject matter areas such as Geography of Europe or History of Our State.¹ Rather, emphasis is given to dynamic aspects of living with material drawn from several fields, so that children may develop richer insights into human relationships and social processes. Representative units which accomplish this purpose carry such titles as Home Life, Living in Our Community, Colonial Living, Pioneer Life, Westward Movement, Transportation,

¹ For an analysis of the differences between subject matter units and experience units see William H. Burton, "Implications for Organization of Instruction and Instructional Adjuncts," *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1950, pp. 221-222.

Communication, Life Study of China, and Growth of Democracy. The two sample units in the Appendix are illustrative of those developed in primary and middle grades in school systems which have outstanding programs.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SOCIAL STUDIES UNITS

There are several criteria of good social studies units which should be kept in mind as units are being selected, planned, and developed. The following statement includes the major points emphasized in several different lists.²

Units in the social studies should contribute to the achievement of all the goals of the social studies. They should provide opportunities for the development of problem-solving skills, democratic behavior, group action skills, significant concepts and understandings, insight into social functions and processes, skill in the use of materials, and the acquisition of functional information. The specific objectives to be achieved in a given unit should be clearly stated.

Each unit should deal with an important aspect of living which is significant to children. It should have definite relationships to the needs and interests of children and should be challenging to them. It should give them increasing insight into ways in which man interacts with his environment in order to meet basic needs for food, shelter, and clothing.

The unit should be related to children's past experiences and should lead to broader interests and other significant areas of experience. It should not be an isolated segment of learning, but should contribute to the continuity of the child's learning.

The unit should be within the range of the ability of the group, be designed to meet individual differences, and provide opportunities to satisfy basic social and personal needs of children. A variety of activities, materials and modes of expression are essential in meeting individual needs. Each child should have many opportunities to make worthy contributions to the achievement of group purposes, and to work with others on significant problems.

² For examples of criteria see H. L. Caswell and D. S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development*, New York: American Book Company, 1935, pp. 388-389, W. H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, New York: Appleton-Century, 1944, pp. 303-304, J. A. Hockett and W. E. Jacobsen, *Modern Practices in the Elementary School*, Boston: Ginn and Company, 1943, pp. 71-72, and J. U. Michaelis, "Planning Learning Experiences in the Social Studies," *The Principal and Curriculum Building*, Twentieth Yearbook, California Elementary School Principals Association, Oakland: The Association, 1948, pp. 79-82.

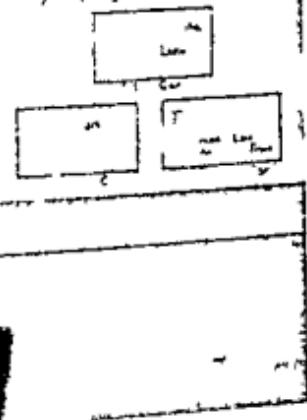
Things We Want To Know

- 1 What do we do all day?
- 2 How do we get back after?
- 3 How do the cars get the tanks of the tanks?
- 4 How do they all get there?
- 5 Who is on the ground?
- 6 Who sits the train?
- 7 Who goes to the library?
- 8 Where is the road?
- 9 What is living?
- 10 How many are there?
- 11 What are they not?
- 12 What else is there?



What We Want To Do

- 1 Build a bay suggestion for boxes from boxes
- 2 Go to the Fair and Out
- 3 Books are borrowed for reading by a teacher
- 4 If I don't feel a word I don't do it
- 5 I like when you answer
- 6 I like to read books
- 7 Books are borrowed for reading
- 8 Books are borrowed for reading



Alameda County

Library skills are put to use in many different units of work. How might you use them in a unit?

The unit should provide opportunities for social interaction and the improvement of democratic group processes. Group sharing, group planning, group doing, group discussing and group evaluating in situations involving problems of group concern are vital processes in democratic living, and should be given consideration. Opportunities for making decisions and choices in the light of democratic values and for putting plans into action must also be provided.

Each unit should provide opportunities for creative experiences. The creativeness possessed by children can be given outlets through group planning and evaluation, expression in related art, music and dramatic play, construction and oral and written language. Creative

expression should be provided through group activity as well as through individual activity Poems, stories, songs, and objects created through group and individual efforts contribute a great deal to the richness of social learning

A wide variety of materials and activities should be used in social studies units Community resources, audio-visual materials, texts, maps, charts, art media, and materials for creative expression are illustrative of the materials used in units of work Construction, dramatic play, reading, outlining, map making, processing of raw materials, taking field trips, planning, discussing, evaluating, and the like are illustrative of activities used in well planned units

Each unit should provide opportunities to develop basic skills to increasingly higher levels Reading, listening, spelling, writing, discussing, measuring, and computing are skills involved in various activities As need arises for their improvement, attention should be given to them This does not mean that skills will "be dragged in," but it does mean that opportunities for their development will be utilized

A unit should be practicable from the standpoint of available time and instructional resources It is impossible to develop a unit successfully when needed materials, references, and community resources are not available

In order to plan units that possess the foregoing characteristics, the teacher must know what is contained in the various sections of a unit plan, and the basic considerations or steps in unit planning These factors will be considered in detail in this chapter

THE UNIT PLAN

The unit plan is an outline of purposes, content, problems, activities, and materials related to a given topic³ It is a general guideline from which may be drawn the particular experiences that will be most profitable to a given class The unit plan does not take the place of daily planning, but does serve as a rich storehouse of ideas, activities and materials which may be used to facilitate planning for a particular group of children⁴

Although there are wide variations among units in different school systems, the following major sections are typical of most of them

³ For a complete example see one of the Units in the Appendix, pp 441-513

⁴ A distinction is usually made between *resource units* and *teaching units* Resource units are designed as a rich source of content activities and materials from which the teacher can select experiences for a given group See the examples in the Appendix pp 441-513 Teaching unit refers to the plan which is used to teach a given unit it contains the activities and materials to be used with a given group

1 *The Title* The title of the unit describes the major area of experience that is included in the unit. Titles are expressed as themes, problems, and topics, such as Growing Interdependence in the World Today, How Do We Secure Our Food, and The Farm. The topical title is frequently used in the elementary school, examples are Home and Family, Living on the Farm, Living in Our Community, Westward Movement, Latin America, Life Study of China.

2 *Background material* This section is sometimes included as an aid to the teacher. It may be a simple outline of content or a more detailed summary of key ideas, processes, and directions for activities.

3 *Purposes* The purposes of the unit are usually included under such headings as attitudes, understandings, concepts, and skills. Some units present both teachers' purposes and pupils' purposes. Some units state purposes as behaviors to be developed, while others simply give a brief statement of anticipated outcomes.

4 *Initiation or approach* This section states specific ways in which the unit can be initiated. The initiation is planned to start the unit on a series of significant experiences. Needs, problems, questions, and desires are stimulated in such a manner that each child is challenged and interested.

5 *Problems and experiences* This section gives problems, activities, and related materials that may be used in the unit. Only those problems, activities and materials that will help to achieve the purposes of the unit should be included.

6 *Culminating activities* This section suggests such activities for concluding or summarizing the unit as a program playlet, exhibit, or pageant. Culminating activities are suggested in some units and not in others. Some units simply suggest leads to other ends when a given unit is ended.

7 *Evaluation* This section suggests procedures and devices that can be used to evaluate learning throughout the unit. Examples of checklists, charts, test items, and so forth, should be included.

8 *Instructional resources* This section lists references for children, references for the teacher, community resources, audio-visual materials, plans for construction, poems, songs, experiments, and so forth. It is a concise but complete list of resources that can be referred to quickly and easily as needs arise.

While different terms are sometimes used the foregoing indicates the essential sections of a unit. The following excerpts, taken from a unit on Air Transportation, are illustrative of each part.

EXCERPTS FROM A UNIT ON AIR TRANSPORTATION

I Purposes

A Major understandings to be developed, such as

- 1 Air transportation is influencing the ways of living of people in all parts of the world
- 2 Air transportation is bringing people closer together and increasing interdependence among people throughout the world
- 3 Man's ideas of travel time, distance, and travel routes are changing because of the speed of air transportation

II Outline of Background Information

A The local airport is the center of a variety of activities and offers many services

- 1 Air express is handled jointly by the airlines and Railway Express
- 2 Passenger service is available to main line centers and from there to all points. Meals are provided on some flights, and thirty to forty pounds of baggage may be taken, depending on type of flight.
- 3 Maintenance shops, hangars, runways, control tower, fuel facilities, and an administration building are located at the airport

III Initiation or Approach

A This unit may be started by means of an arranged environment. The following materials are to be placed in the classroom to stimulate interests, needs, and problems

- 1 *Pictures* Types of planes, buildings at the airport, a series to show changes in planes, and so forth
- 2 *Maps* Selected maps of U.S.A., air routes, and air-age maps.
- 3 *Books* A library corner in which are displayed *Book of Modern Airplanes*, *Air Patrol*, and so forth.
- 4 *Models* Planes and gliders arranged on a table
- 5 *Audio-visual materials* A set of slides on the airport will be shown
- 6 Group discussion will follow exploration of the environment.

IV Problems and Related Experiences

PROBLEMS OR NEEDS

- 1 What are the activities of workers at the airport?
 - a Pilots
 - b Dispatchers
 - c Stewardesses
 - d Others

EXPERIENCES INVOLVED

- 1 Group planning and discussion to determine ways of solving the problem and sources of information
- 2 Seeing a film strip on the airport
- 3 Interviewing airport workers
- 4 Examining free materials from airlines

5 Reading stories in Kelher, *Air Workers*, pp 30-60, Pryor, *Airplane Book*, pp 15-42

6 Planning and taking a trip to the airport.

2 Types of airplanes

1 Discussion of types seen at the airport

2 Reading in Booth, *Book of Modern Airplanes*, Whipple, *Airplanes at Work*

3 Examining pictures

4 Seeing slides on airplanes

V Culmination

A One or more of the following culminating activities may be used

- 1 Pageant of life at the airport or development of aviation
- 2 An original play on selected portions of the unit
- 3 A program including demonstrations, discussions, brief talks, and skits using maps, pictures, models, slides, murals, etc.

VI Techniques of Evaluation

A Evaluation is a continuous, cooperative process carried on from the beginning of the unit. Suggestive means of evaluation are

- 1 Anecdotal records on cooperation, responsibility, leadership
- 2 Charts cooperatively made by the group and used in individual and group self-evaluation
- 3 Teacher observation of children as they use skills and concepts, and work cooperatively in dramatic play, construction, and so forth

VII Instructional Resources

A Bibliography for teachers

- 1 Civil Aeronautics Administration, *Aviation Education Source Book* New York Hastings House, 1946
- 2 Desoutter, D. M., *All About Aircraft* New York John de Graff, 1955

B Bibliography for children

- 1 Hyde, M. O., *Flight, Today & Tomorrow* New York McGraw-Hill, 1953
- 2 Lewellen, John, *Jet Transports* New York Crowell, 1955

C Community Resources

- 1 Field trip to the airport Call Mr. Jones, GR 1-1102, 9:00-12:00 A.M., to make arrangements
- 2 Resource visitors such as pilots, stewardesses, and dispatchers.

D Audio Visual Materials

1 Motion pictures

- a *Development of Transportation*, No 290, Audio-Visual Center
- b *Coast to Coast by Plane*, University Audio-Visual Department.

The foregoing excerpts have been presented to clarify the meaning of various terms used in planning units, and to illustrate the type of content in each section of a unit. It should not be inferred, however, that units in all school systems follow the same pattern.⁵ There is considerable variation among both unit plans and terminology in current use throughout the country. Nevertheless, the terms and outline presented above do include the essential elements and meanings needed in unit planning. Let us now consider the major phases of unit planning essential to the preparation of a unit.

ESSENTIAL CONSIDERATIONS IN UNIT PLANNING

SELECTING A UNIT Units are selected in various ways in school systems at the present time.⁶ Probably the most effective procedure is that in which a framework for the social studies has been designed, suggested units are proposed for different grades, and teachers select within this framework with reference to the needs of children in their classes. This procedure prevents repetition, promotes the procuring of materials for specific units, and prevents the selection of insignificant units. A second procedure, not so widely used as the preceding one, is the selection of units by the teacher and children on the basis of immediate needs and interests of the group. This plan has certain merits but in the hands of inexpert teachers it results in repetition, selection of insignificant units, omission of important units, and failure to build up a rich stock of instructional materials, including audio-visual aids, that can be used throughout the school system. Among other plans in use for selecting units is that in which basic textbooks set the pattern, and units are built around them. This plan greatly limits learning possibilities, for it is unsound to permit a text, or series of texts, to determine the curriculum.

⁵ See the units in the Appendix, pp. 441-513.

⁶ For a good discussion see Ruth G. Strickland *How to Build a Unit of Work* Washington D.C. United States Office of Education 1946.

It should be emphasized that in selecting and planning a unit, growth characteristics and needs of children in the group should be kept in mind. Needs and past experiences of children can be determined through observation, analysis of cumulative records, and consultation with former teachers, the principal, and supervisors. Special attention should be given to reading levels, oral and written language abilities, previous units of work, individual interests and needs, and socio-economic backgrounds. Standards of living, customs, and mores in home, neighborhood, and community give clues to needed emphases, misconceptions, and values of the group. If a resource unit is being planned and the teacher is unacquainted with the class (pre-planning prior to the opening of school), the growth characteristics⁷ of children at the level for which the unit is being planned should be reviewed.

BUILDING A RICH BACKGROUND OF EXPERIENCE An essential step in the planning of units after the topic is selected is the building of a rich background of experience by the teacher himself. Units developed by others should be studied for suggestions. Texts, pamphlets and references available for children, and background materials for the teacher should be read and annotated. Audio visual materials should be previewed, and notes should be made regarding their contributions to the unit. If time permits, community resources should be checked, trips should be taken to those places in the community that may be used for excursions, and interviews should be held with potential resource visitors. Pictures, photographs, maps, sketches, charts, and diagrams should be collected and filed with notations regarding their use in the unit. Some teachers have found it helpful to take pictures for use in the unit. Industrial arts processes, experiments, and demonstrations should be tried out. Collections should be made of songs, records, poems, stories, paintings, and realia. Weapons, utensils, clothing, and other realia should be secured. If they are unavailable, the teacher should endeavor to get pictures of them and to see them in a museum. An annotated bibliography containing children's references, teacher's references, and audio visual materials should be compiled. An outline of basic content and activities should be prepared. Now the teacher is ready to do specific planning for a given class or for children at a given level. To try to write a unit plan without a rich background of information is wasteful of time and energy.

⁷ See Chapter 3.

STATING PURPOSES. After a rich background has been built by the teacher, specific purposes should be set in accordance with the needs and maturity of the children for whom the unit is intended. Types of questions that must be answered are: "What can the group accomplish in this unit?" "How can this unit make specific, practical contributions to the goals of the social studies?" "What specific understandings and concepts can children at this level develop?" "What behaviors can be developed?" In answering these questions the teacher should state purposes that are practical, to the point, worth while, attainable by the children, consistent with the goals of the social studies, and that lead to improvement in behavior and can be evaluated. General purposes, such as *improvement of character, better thinking, and appreciation of our country*, have little value. Purposes must be tied down specifically to the problems that exist in the unit. For exam-



Los Angeles

Direct, purposeful experiences, such as weaving, add to children's appreciation and understanding of ways of living of others. What direct experiences might you provide in a unit you are planning?

ple, the following excerpt of purposes related to understandings to be developed in an upper grade unit on air transportation are clear and to the point

Basic understandings

Air transportation is bringing the people of the world closer together

Different types of aircraft are used to transport goods and people to protect forests and to conserve crops

People can easily exchange goods in all parts of the world by means of air transportation

Man's ideas of travel time, distance, and travel routes are changing because of the speed of air transportation

People throughout the world must learn to work together in planning and controlling the use of air transportation

The foregoing are illustrative of specific, definite purposes that can be used to select experiences, materials, and procedures of evaluation. All purposes should be stated in a similar manner.⁸

PLANNING THE INITIATION. The initiation of a unit should be planned to stimulate interests and problems, and to provide common experience so that effective group planning may take place. Participation by the group is essential so that the children can identify themselves with the unit that is to be undertaken. Problems and questions should grow out of the initiation and should be discussed and defined by the group as a basic step in problem solving. In order to accomplish these things a good initiation

- 1 Stimulates keen interest on the part of each child
- 2 Provides opportunities for pupil participation and is not solely on a verbal level
- 3 Employs a variety of materials
- 4 Provokes childlike questions and problems
- 5 Forms a common basis for group discussion
- 6 Leads to group planning on ways to solve problems
- 7 Starts the unit in profitable directions on a significant problem.
- 8 Does not create confusion by stimulating interest in too many problems at one time or in problems beyond the maturity of the group

The teacher's task is to plan initiations which meet the foregoing criteria. Many different approaches, and combinations of approaches,

⁸ For an excellent discussion of purposes in unit planning see W. H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities* (Revised ed.), New York: Appleton-Century, 1952, pp. 417-423.

can be used. A consideration of a few selected examples is needed to clarify the use of techniques and materials in the initiation of a unit. The following examples are taken from records made by the writer during surveys of social studies programs in different school systems.

1 *Teacher suggestion* The teacher may suggest that a given topic be studied. This procedure is not too effective as it is on the verbal level and children do not participate in it to any great extent. It rarely leads to effective group action unless it is done indirectly through an arranged environment, use of films, group discussion, sharing of materials, or other activities.

2 *Incidents* A unit may be initiated as a result of an incident in the community. For example, a jet plane landing at the airport may start the unit on transportation, or a child bringing in a model boat to share with the class may start the boat unit. While such incidents should be used as they relate to the unit, one wonders what would have happened if the jet plane had landed elsewhere, or the child had brought some rocks instead of a boat. More substantial planning is needed to assure effective initiation of most units.

3 *Pre-test* A pre test may be used to start a unit, but most children need more stimulation than can be given by a test. The initiation should open up questions and problems in such a way as to promote discussion and planning. Tests are not the best way of bringing this about.

4 *Books* Books are sometimes used to initiate a unit. New texts or several books brought from the library may be used to stimulate interest in a unit. If this approach is used exclusively, it is difficult to give a common background for group planning and discussion. In most instances, books should be used along with other resources in the initiation.

5 *Audio visual materials* A motion picture, film strip, set of slides, radio program, recording, or a story read to the class may be used to initiate a unit. For example, one teacher used a film on Mexico to stimulate discussion on key problems, another teacher used slides carefully selected to stimulate interest in pioneer life, still another read a story on farm life to open up possible activities of interest to the group. To be avoided in these approaches are such pitfalls as failure to secure the audio visual aid at the right time, presenting so many ideas that the group does not sense immediate problems to attack, failure to stimulate interests of all children, and passive reception by the group instead of active participation. These difficulties can be avoided by careful pre planning for the use of films, slides, and stories.

in connection with other approaches, such as the arranged environment

6 *Community resources* A study trip or resource visitor may be used to initiate a unit. If careful plans are made, it is possible to provide a common experience for effective group planning. Generally speaking, however, these devices are more effectively used when the entire group plans for their use in relation to specific needs and problems that have arisen. Thus they are most effective as an approach to a new unit when used as an on-going activity growing out of the preceding unit. For example, one group in concluding a study of Life on the Farm made careful plans to visit a wholesale market in order to discover ways in which farm produce was processed and distributed. The visit to the market initiated the unit on The Wholesale Market in a smooth, on-going manner, and with no interruption in the overall emphasis for the year on "how we secure our food, shelter, and clothing."

7. *On-going experience* One of the most effective approaches is that in which a given unit grows out of a preceding unit as an on-going experience. For example, one teacher initiated a study of The Grocery Store as an outgrowth of the unit on The Bakery. Questions had arisen regarding the buying, selling, delivering, and distribution of bread and other bakery products. Other illustrative sequences from unit to unit are The Farm to Wholesale Market, Neighborhood to Community, Boats and Harbors to Community Life, and Colonial and Pioneer Living to Westward Movement. The essence of this type of approach is the children's recognition of the problems and needs which lead on to the next unit so that a smooth, uninterrupted transition is made.

8 *Arranged environment* The arranged environment is an excellent device for introducing a unit. The classroom is attractively arranged with pictures, realia, maps, charts, books, pamphlets, and similar materials related to central problems in the unit.* Children are given an opportunity to examine the materials and to converse about them, thus actively participating in the initiation. A film, story, or recording may also be used. During discussion, questions and problems are clarified, and plans are made for attacking them. This procedure combines several of the foregoing into one unified approach in which the classroom is arranged and used as a laboratory to stimulate social learning.

* See the units in the Appendix for examples p. 412, and p. 497. Also notice the suggested room arrangements, pp. 478-480.

A brief description of an arranged environment, and responses of children to it, may serve to clarify its use in the initiation of a unit. The following example is taken from a unit on The Westward Movement. The classroom was arranged as follows:

1 Pictures of scenes in an early pioneer town on the Missouri River were posted on the bulletin board. They included a general store, a wagon being loaded, a blacksmith shop, a general street scene, a covered wagon in process of construction, and a wagon leaving the city for the West.

2 On another section of the bulletin board there were pictures related to the Oregon Trail, including a caravan fording a river, life in a camp, a herd of buffalo, three Indian scouts watching a wagon train, wagons crossing the plains, and pioneers building cabins.

3 Another section of the bulletin board showed several pictures of Plains Indians including the hunting of buffalo, an attack upon a wagon train, and Indian scouts.

4 On a table in a corner of the room there were several articles that the children could manipulate. These included a model of a covered wagon, pioneer dolls (a man, a woman, child), a powder horn, a flintlock rifle, candle molds, a water pouch, shot pouches, buffalo horns, a bull whip, arrows, bows, a corn grinder, and flint used in making arrows.

5 In another section of the room there was a large map of the United States, showing various mountain barriers, rivers, and trails.

6 In the library corner, attractively displayed, were several books about Indians, pioneers, covered wagons, cities in the early West, and traveling in pioneer days.

7 In the construction corner tools—nails, boards, sawhorses, paper, scissors, paint, and empty boxes had been placed.

As the children eagerly examined the different items in the arranged environment the teacher noted comments, questions, needs, interests, desires, and problems expressed by them. Typical comments and questions included the following:

What kind of gun is this? How did they work it?

Look at these wagons! Would they hold very much?

I'll bet it was hard to ride in these wagons. They're different from cars, aren't they?

I wonder if it's hard to make a covered wagon?

How did they carry their food and water in these wagons?

Look at the clothes that they wore!
 Oh! I see how they got across rivers with the covered wagon.
 Notice how this town is different from ours.
 Look at the store and the man making covered wagons.

The teacher noted these and other questions and problems raised by the children. These were clues for the development of significant experiences in the unit. After the children had examined the materials, the teacher and the group engaged in a lively discussion of the many interesting materials and activities related to the Westward Movement. Through group planning subsequent interests and problems were identified, and specific plans were made for working on them. Thus, the unit was begun in an exciting and challenging manner.

Which type of initiation is the best? It is impossible to say that one approach is the best for all situations. *In some instances a film*



Oakland

A well-arranged classroom environment can be used to initiate a unit because it creates many interests and problems. What questions might arise after examination of these materials?

may be available, an incident may occur, or a field trip is possible, whereas other resources are not available at the moment. In other situations, a discussion of common experiences during the summer may lead to a rich study of some aspect of community living, transportation, or conservation. The teacher must be alert to these possibilities and use them in a creative manner. In general, however, it is the writer's firm belief that the arranged environment and the initiation growing out of another unit as an on going activity are generally the two most effective approaches. In each unit that is planned it is sound procedure to consider previous experiences of the group so that each unit can be an on going activity, and to plan an arranged environment that can be used to get off to a successful beginning. Then the teacher is prepared to launch the unit in an effective manner and does not have to wait for other approaches to arise. After the approach is decided upon, the teacher should plan and guide the initiation so that it creates keen interest in the unit, provokes significant questions, provides for pupil participation, employs a variety of materials, leads to group planning, and starts the unit in profitable directions.

MAJOR PROBLEMS OR NEEDS A basic consideration in unit planning is the determination of the needs or problems that will most likely arise and which are of primary importance in the unit. By determining major problems ahead of time it is possible to engage in more effective pre planning. Related activities and materials can be selected for each major problem.¹⁰ This does not mean that the exact order or sequence of problems can be determined. The sequence develops as the teacher and children plan together.

The problems that are selected should be meaningful to children. They should be stated in simple language, and in much the same form as they will probably arise in group planning. The problems should be childlike, include the most important phases of the unit, be of interest to children, be attainable by the group, stimulate problem solving, and contribute to the purposes of the unit. The following examples, taken from a unit on Pioneer Life, are illustrative. Notice that they are stated as purposes of children, or things the group will probably wish to do.

- 1 To make pioneer furniture
- 2 To make utensils and clothing
- 3 To engage in dramatic play related to living in the cabins
- 4 To determine how the pioneers dressed

¹⁰ See the examples in the Appendix, pp. 450-460 and pp. 489-503.

- 5 To find out how homes were lighted and heated
- 6 To make candles, soap, brooms
- 7 To engage in dramatic play related to hunting
- 8 To make guns, powder horns, knives
- 9 To learn how pioneers provided shelter such as half-faced camp, lean-to, dugout, cabin, stockade, fort

SELECTING EXPERIENCES TO SOLVE PROBLEMS After the major problems in the unit have been outlined, each one should be analyzed in order to determine the related experiences and materials that are needed to solve it. The following excerpts show the activities and materials selected to solve a problem in a unit on Air Transportation.

PROBLEM: To find out about types of aircraft and their uses.

- 1 Arrange the bulletin board with pictures of different types of aircraft.
 - a Children may bring and show pictures
- 2 Discuss types of aircraft that the group has seen. Possible questions are
 - a What kinds of planes have you seen?
 - b What other types of aircraft have you seen?
- 3 Demonstrate elementary principles of flight by using a balsa wood glider
- 4 Guide group planning to determine ways of finding out about types of aircraft
 - a Interviews, trip to airport, resource visitor, reading, film strips
- 5 Interview airport workers and parents or relatives who are familiar with different types
- 6 Read such references as
 - a Whipple *Airplanes at Work*, pp 213-222
- 7 Individual references may be used such as
 - a Booth, *Book of Modern Airplanes*
 - b Encyclopedias
- 8 See film strip on airplanes
- 9 See slides on old time aircraft
- 10 See demonstration and hear discussion of model planes by Mr. Johns, telephone DR 4-2671

Many other types of activities can be used in connection with a given problem or need. The suggestive list which follows is based on a review of recently developed units.

- 1 *Community experiences* Taking study trips, interviewing resource persons, listening to resource visitors, observing community activities, sharing current events, making collections, doing field studies, and doing service projects



Demonstration Summer School,
University of California, Berkeley

Plans should be made for experiences in playing instruments, composing songs, hearing records, singing, and rhythmic expression because such activities help to round out qualitative and subjective aspects of learning.

2. *Language experiences.* Conversation, discussion, story-telling, choral speaking, making reports, giving brief talks, making announcements, giving directions, telephoning, dramatic play, dramatization, writing letters and outlines, reading pamphlets and books, listening to others, spelling needed words.

3. *Audio-visual experiences.* Seeing films, slides, pictures, and T-V programs, hearing recordings and radio programs, examining and making collections, examining realia and working models, studying and making posters, cartoons, and graphs, using and making maps and charts, seeing and making dioramas, panoramas, and exhibits, seeing and giving demonstrations.

4. *Number experiences.* Using number concepts, measuring, counting and reading numbers, computing, solving problems.

5. *Musical experiences.* Playing instruments, singing songs, listening to recordings, composing songs, using musical accompaniments.

6. *Physical experiences.* Rhythmic bodily expression, folk dancing, playing games.

7 *Industrial and fine arts experiences* Processing raw materials, construction, book making, clay modeling, soap and wood carving, making puppets and marionettes, weaving, printing, stenciling and spatter painting, decorating textiles, making appliques, drawing and painting, lettering and labeling, arranging materials, sketching and illustrating

Specific examples of ways in which activities and content from different areas of the curriculum may be used in units of work are suggested in the Appendix, pp 464-477, and pp 505-513

In order to make sure that educative experiences are being selected, specific criteria should be used to choose activities for use in solving a given problem in a unit. The following statement includes criteria most frequently mentioned in units and courses of study

All experiences selected for use in a unit should

- 1 Contribute to the achievement of the purposes of the unit
- 2 Stimulate problem solving and critical thinking
- 3 Be geared to the level of development of the group
- 4 Be varied so as to hold interest, meet individual needs, and provide for individual and cooperative group activity
- 5 Be worth while and practical with reference to time, expense, and available resources
- 6 Be recognizable by the group as being needed to solve the problem
- 7 Lead to other significant activities
- 8 Be authentic and realistic in order to build accurate concepts
- 9 Call for the use of a variety of materials and skills

CULMINATION Culminating activities are planned to summarize and organize the unit. They are used in some units and not used in others. Some teachers recommend them, others frown upon their use. Some have real value, others are teacher imposed activities. Basic questions for the teacher to ask in deciding whether or not to have a culminating activity are

- 1 Will a culminating activity contribute to social learning?
- 2 Is it worth the time, effort, and expense?
- 3 Do the children see sense in it?
- 4 Will it be childlike?
- 5 Is it a natural outgrowth of preceding activities?
- 6 Does it suggest a new area of study?
- 7 Will it help to organize the children's thinking?



Oakla

Number experiences—counting, weighing, measuring, computing—are involved in many units. Can you think of functional number experiences to include in a unit?

- 8 Does it provide opportunities to apply key learnings
- 9 Does it stimulate democratic sharing?
- 10 Will each child have an opportunity to participate?
- 11 Will it help to evaluate the achievement of purposes?

If, after careful study of the foregoing questions, a culminating activity appears to have real value for a given group, it should be used. However, if a culmination is to be used solely to "put on a show," it will have little value for the group.

The following examples illustrate types of culminating activities that have been used successfully. In a Colonial Study, one group ended the unit by presenting and discussing the following:

- Time lines and maps that had been made
- Models of objects that had been constructed
- Reports on life in the different colonies
- A presentation of songs and rhythms that had been created
- Some of the folk songs and folk dances that had been learned
- Pictures and murals that had been drawn

Many other types of culminating activities can be used. The following list is not exhaustive, but it does include a sampling from recently developed units and courses of study: demonstrations, discussion of maps, time lines, charts, dramatizations, excursions, exhibits, festivals, group reports, group made tests, making a scrapbook, pageants, quiz programs, round table discussions, self evaluative activities, service projects, sharing of creative poems, stories, songs, sharing of pictures, and tableaus.

Many teachers plan units so that the final activity in one unit leads to the development or beginning of the next unit. This is one of the most effective types of culminating activity, as it promotes continuity of learning. In other words, as has been mentioned earlier, the final activity is really an on going activity to conclude one unit and to initiate another.

EVALUATION Evaluation is an essential element in all phases of the unit from the initiation to the culminating activity. Pre planning should be made for evaluation just as it is made for other experiences in the unit. The purposes of the unit must be kept clearly in mind as aspects of behavior to be appraised in a variety of situations. Information secured through evaluation should be used to improve daily planning, select new materials, clarify needs of individual children, and improve group work. At times summaries should be made and filed or recorded in the cumulative record. The entire process of

evaluation should be viewed as an inseparable part of the group and individual activities carried on to improve social learning

Many teachers find it helpful to plan for the use of a variety of evaluative devices. Many procedures are developed as the unit progresses. Examples are charts on work standards, informal evaluation through observation by the teacher, self-evaluation by the children, analysis of sample materials, and group evaluation after various activities. Other procedures such as checklists, tests, and interest inventories are prepared ahead of time and used as needed. The following list is suggestive of devices that can be used (examples of several of these devices appear in Chapter 15).¹¹

Tests	Rating scales
Interviews	Checklists
Case studies	Logs or diaries
Case conferences	Group made charts
Observation	Sociometric techniques
Group discussion	Recordings
Anecdotal records	Films
Questionnaires	Photographs
Files of sample material	Stenographic reports
Inventories	Pupil made devices

KEEPING A LOG TO EVALUATE THE UNIT One item needing special comment at this point has to do with keeping a log of the unit as it develops. Many teachers have advised the writer that the keeping of a simple log is an excellent procedure for use in evaluating the unit, and for gathering ideas to use in revising the unit. A satisfactory log is a simple, brief, running account of the unit, with comments on daily activities. Good points, weaknesses, needed changes, difficulties, and special problems should be noted. Many teachers jot down items during the day, or at the end of the day, and keep them in a folder. This type of log is simply a series of brief notes for future use. The writer earnestly recommends keeping logs as a procedure for improving each unit that is developed.

PREPARED AND COLLECTING MATERIALS It is helpful to prepare and collect as many materials as possible before the unit is begun. Pictures, maps, pamphlets, models, art materials, construction materials, and some audio-visual aids can be secured in advance. Teacher-prepared materials include such items as charts, study guides, slides, simply

¹¹ J. U. Michaels, "Current Practices in Evaluation in City School Systems," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 9: 15-22, Spring 1949.

rewritten material,¹² scrapbooks, checklists, directions for processes, plans for construction, and evaluative devices. Obviously, some of these must be prepared as the unit develops, but they should be prepared ahead of time whenever possible. Such a procedure enables the teacher to spend more time working with the group as the unit is being developed. After materials are collected, it is helpful to organize them in a box or a file so that they are easily accessible for reference and use by the teacher as needed.

SUMMARY OF UNIT PLANNING

Perhaps it will be helpful at this point to summarize the major considerations that are essential in unit planning. Although the order of the steps may vary, the following are essential:

1. The unit is selected after a review of the course of study and a study of the needs and growth characteristics of the group for which it is intended.

2. A rich background of experience is developed by the teacher through reading and annotating references, interviewing, visiting, trying out processes and experiments, making collections, previewing audio-visual aids, and reviewing units developed by others.

3. An outline is made of purposes, major needs and problems, content, and experiences that should be included in the unit.

4. Consideration is given to ways of initiating the unit such as arranging the classroom to stimulate needs and problems, relating it to a preceding unit, using questions, suggestions, and experiences of children, or introducing it by direct means such as a story, an announcement, or the distribution of a textbook.

5. Problems and subsequent activities growing out of the initiation are listed along with related experiences and needed materials.

6. Attention is given to ways in which evaluation may be carried on continuously throughout the unit, and to the appropriateness of culminating activities.

7. A list is made of textbooks, audio-visual aids, community resources, and library materials.

8. Needed resources such as charts, time lines, models, manipulative materials, evaluative devices, rewrites of difficult reading material, maps, and floor layouts are prepared.

9. The unit plan and collections of materials are organized into a kit to be used as the unit develops.

¹² See examples in Chapter 12.

10 A simple, easy to use plan is made for keeping a log of the unit as it develops with the group

SELECTED PROBLEMS AND ISSUES

There are several other problems and issues related to the use of units in the social studies that need brief attention. These relate to such problems as using units planned by others, duration of a given unit, designs for the written plan, cooperative teacher-planning of units, and using materials from other areas of the curriculum.

UNITS PREPARED BY OTHERS Teachers frequently ask whether or not they should use units of work written by others. The answer is *yes*, if selected units are enriched and adapted to the needs of a given class. In fact, many school systems are developing and distributing units of work for the use of all teachers. Like a course of study, a teacher's manual, or any other instructional aid, units developed by others should be checked for good suggestions, and used to the extent that they meet the needs of a given group. They should not, however, be imposed upon a group of children, since such a procedure would obviously lead to regimentation, neglect of individual differences, and loss of children's interest in the program. On the other hand, the belief, held by a few, that teachers should write each unit, and not even scrutinize those developed by others lest creativity be curbed, is both *naïve* and impractical. In order to secure optimum efficiency in planning social studies experiences, teachers need more help, not less, in the preparation and use of units of work.

DURATION OF A UNIT The length of time over which a given unit will extend varies, it depends upon the interest and ability of the group, supply of books and other materials, richness of the experience within the unit, skill of the teacher in providing a stimulating environment and in guiding children into experiences that lead into new interests, and the number of significant problems that arise while the unit is under way. As the teacher observes a group in action, it is possible to determine whether there is added value in continuing a given unit after the major problems have been completed. In other words, no set time can or should be given for a given unit, since length of a unit will vary from group to group, community to community, and teacher to teacher.

The following examples of the lengths of time spent on various units are illustrative. One group in Grade I completed a unit on The Home in three weeks, another group of more mature six-year-olds

The Ferryboat

Music notation for 'The Ferryboat' in common time, key of G major. The lyrics are:

I am on a ferryboat
I am going across the river
Clang, down goes the chain
Buzz, the motor starts going
Off we go up the ramp

The Tug and the Freighter

Music notation for 'The Tug and the Freighter' in common time, key of G major. The lyrics are:

One morning the tug had a call,
The tug left the wharf
It went puffing up to a freighter
And pushed it to its dock

University Elementary School,
University of California at Los Angeles

Creative expression through music is an essential part of many units of work. How might you provide for creative musical experiences?

spent eight weeks on a similar unit. The additional time used by the second group was consumed in several field trips, construction of a playhouse in the classroom, and dramatic play. A group of seven-year-olds in the study of Life on the Farm spent ten weeks before the study was completed. They constructed many articles, engaged in dramatic play, and took excursions to a nearby farm. Another group in a more restricted program, which was largely limited to stories and art activities, completed a unit on The Farm in four weeks. One group spent an entire semester in a study of Pioneers and the Westward Movement. Interest was high throughout the entire unit. Another group spent only ten weeks on the same topic because of limitations on materials and activities that could be used. Other groups spend as much as a full year on one major area of experience.

In planning the duration of a unit the teacher must consider the needs, interests, and maturity of the group, consult the course of study for suggested time allotment, consider other units that should be developed with the group, and then come to a decision regarding the length of a unit to be developed during a given semester or year.

COOPERATIVE UNIT-PLANNING. Group planning by teachers is an effective procedure for the preparation of units of work and should

be employed whenever possible. Several teachers working together can share ideas, make unique contributions to the unit, divide responsibilities, and analyze many more sources than can a teacher working alone. Some school systems have found it helpful to form committees made up of individuals with varied backgrounds. The following guidelines are essential considerations in such group planning, although the order in which they are listed may vary.

- 1 Think through the possibilities in the unit as a group, and make a tentative outline of the unit headed by a statement of values and purposes.
- 2 Assign various subtopics within the unit to individuals in the group.
- 3 Divide responsibilities for the analysis of materials, with agreement beforehand on the type of notes that should be used.
- 4 Meet frequently to discuss next steps, problems, and difficulties that arise.
- 5 Make assignments for the preparation of such resources as charts, time lines, manipulative materials, evaluative devices, and simple rewrites of difficult reading materials.
- 6 Consider ways in which the unit may be initiated.
- 7 Assemble the subtopics and analysis of materials in a tentative sequence of experiences.
- 8 Consider ways in which evaluation may be carried on as the unit develops, as well as at the culmination of the unit.
- 9 Organize a bibliography of references and a list of instructional resources.

USING MATERIALS FROM OTHER AREAS OF THE CURRICULUM In the development of a unit it is frequently necessary to draw upon and use materials from many different areas of the curriculum. This is necessary because the problem solving process should not stop at subject matter boundaries. If experiences in art, music, arithmetic or the language arts are essential to the solution of a major problem in a given unit, then they should be used by the group to solve that problem. If selected pieces of literature will help to clarify social understandings, they should be used. If material from science is essential to an understanding of ways of living in the community, that material should be used. In any problem-solving situation, the group should gather the data needed to solve the problem, regardless of the boundaries set up by subject matter experts.

The problem of the subject matter expert needs brief comment. The writer has on several occasions heard individuals representing such



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Related science experiences should not be overlooked as units are being planned. What science experiences are appropriate in a unit you are planning? (See the examples in the Appendix, pp. 510-513.)

fields as science, literature, art, and music "view with alarm" the practice of using materials from 'their' respective fields in the social studies. Some of them have pointed out that 'Our field must remain strong and virile, and must continue to hold a major position in the curriculum.' Such a point of view represents the old academic approach to elementary education, in which the child was pushed aside while battles raged over the importance of subjects. In sharp contrast are the subject matter experts who sit down with teachers to help them plan rich learning experiences for boys and girls. Problems and situations that are significant to children are considered and then the basic question is raised 'How can subject matter from various fields of learning be used to solve these problems?'

In using material from other fields, it should be kept in mind that other areas of the curriculum are drawn upon to facilitate problem solving, and not to bring about superficial correlation and integration. A few teachers have at times "dragged" related materials and activities into the social studies just to be 'correlatin'" and 'integratin'." Such a procedure gets nowhere, because the use of related fields in the

social studies can make sense to children only when the problems and situations being considered call for use of experiences from other areas of the curriculum. The child himself must see relationships, and use the related content and materials to solve problems and to achieve purposes which are real to him. Several illustrative examples of materials from other areas are presented in the Appendix, pp. 464-477, and pp. 505-513.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

- 1 Get acquainted with sources of sample units prepared by others by checking the following as available in your situation:
 - a Sample units in the library or curriculum laboratory
 - b Magazines which contain unit plans or articles on units such as *Social Education*, *The Instructor*, *California Journal of Elementary Education*, *Grade Teacher*, *Elementary School Journal*
 - c Curriculum guides which contain units of work
 - d Books which contain sample units of work or descriptions of units of work such as those listed in the references at the end of this chapter
 - e Units of work published commercially such as those of Educational Division, *World Book Encyclopedia*, Field Enterprises Inc., Chicago, Ill. (Units for middle grades are available at 10¢ each)
 - f Units of work prepared by fellow students and teachers
 - g Units listed in *The Education Index* under the sub heading "Units"
- 2 Make a critical review of a unit found in one of the sources above in terms of the "characteristics of an effective unit of work" presented in the first part of this chapter. Or, review one of those in the Appendix. In what ways would you alter it and improve it for use in your situation?
- 3 Make a plan for a unit of work following the outline suggested in this chapter or the outline of one of the units in the Appendix. If possible, plan it cooperatively with a fellow student using the suggestions in this chapter on "cooperative unit planning." Suggest ways in which you can utilize experiences in art, music, arithmetic and other areas of the curriculum as the unit is developed.
- 4 Prepare a kit (or box) of resource materials—pictures, songs, recipes, directions for construction, maps, charts, pamphlets, etc.—that can be used with the unit you are planning.
- 5 Arrange to visit a classroom in which a unit of work of interest to you is being developed. Visit several times so that you can observe the initiation, several subsequent experiences, and the culmination. Discuss questions and problems regarding the planning and developing of units with the teacher in charge.

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USING EFFECTIVE GROUP PROCESSES

The success of the social studies program depends to a large degree upon the teacher's skill in developing and utilizing group processes in each unit of work that is developed. The term *group processes* simply means ways of working together to solve common problems. Since the very essence of democratic behavior resides in cooperative group work it is necessary to give detailed consideration to the use of group processes in the social studies.

BACKGROUNDS FOR EFFECTIVE GROUP PROCESSES

There are several background factors related to effective group processes which teachers should keep in mind as they work with elementary school children. In each of the topics discussed below, attention is focussed upon values, understandings, principles, and techniques that have been found to be most helpful to successful teachers. Of utmost importance are the teacher's own attitudes, appreciations, and feelings about group processes. As you read the following sections endeavor to visualize a group of children at work in a classroom in which the points stressed below are in actual operation. Better yet, visit a classroom and observe them in action!

VALUES Democratic group processes improve individual and group efficiency.¹ More effective action is secured when individuals plan, work, and evaluate together. Group sharing and discussion of ideas lead to higher levels of thinking. Feelings of belongingness,

¹ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Processes in Supervision*. Washington, D.C. The Association, 1948.

security, acceptance, prestige, and mutual trust can be engendered.² Group action is more positive when based on the best thinking of each individual. The atmosphere of the democratic group is permissive and experimental, not hostile, punitive, or autocratic. Each individual has a place in the group and the talents of all are used. Morale is higher and more creative and constructive work is done in democratic atmosphere.³ Both individual and group activity reach higher levels of efficiency when cooperative processes are employed.

INTERACTION Interaction among all members of the group facilitates group processes. Maximum participation on the part of all members is essential to the development of effective group processes. All members of the group should have an opportunity to share ideas, present points of view, agree and disagree, clarify ideas, raise questions, and communicate with others. No restrictions should be set up because of racial, social, or class differences. The desires of cliques, special interest groups, and individuals must be considered in the light of group needs and commonly shared purposes. The best thinking, planning, and action of each individual, coupled with warm human relationships and respect for the contributions of each participant, are essential.⁴ Majority decision and action should be accepted, trusted, and evaluated in terms of cooperatively made goals.⁵

GROUP GOALS Clearly stated goals should be established by the group to guide planning, action, and evaluation. The goals of a group should be developed cooperatively, not imposed by a member of the group, a clique, or an outsider. The drive to action that comes from group made goals is more potent than that secured when goals are imposed. In addition, group made goals are better understood, can be changed by the group as new needs arise, and lead to more effective appraisal. Finally, group-made goals indicate levels of thinking and development, and give clues to the point at which the group should begin. Thus goal making by the group is an essential element in cooperative action.

² Kurt Lewin, "The Dynamics of Group Action," *Educational Leadership*, 1, 193200 January 1944 and Bernice Baxter and Rosalind Cassidy, *Group Experience*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1943, pp. 20-21.

³ Ronald Lippitt, "An Experimental Study of the Effect of Democratic and Authoritarian Group Atmospheres," *University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare Bulletin* 16 No. 3, Iowa City, 1940, pp. 43-195 and Ronald Lippitt and R. H. White, "The Social Climate of Children's Groups," in Robert C. Barker, Jacob S. Hornsby, and H. F. Wright, *Child Behavior and Development*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1943, pp. 485-506.

⁴ L. T. Hopkins, *Interaction in the Democratic Process*, New York, D. C. Heath & Co., 1941.

⁵ Baxter and Cassidy, *op. cit.*

What birds of Christ are in America?

Where are they located?

San Diego

One of the first steps in clear thinking is the identification of questions and problems. Maps and other materials can be used to stimulate questions. How might you use this technique to stimulate critical thinking?

CRITICAL THINKING. Critical thinking should permeate all phases of group action as children work to achieve common purposes. The free play of intelligence upon all problems, irrespective of personal desires, is imperative. The value of careful analysis of opinions, ideas, and suggestions should be recognized by each member of the group. Ideas, suggestions, and opinions should be accepted or rejected in terms of their value in achieving cooperatively established purposes. Emotional behavior must be recognized and considered when heated differences arise. Persuasion should be based on reason and used to move the group toward the achievement of purposes. Effective problem-solving techniques should be used, including recognition and definition of problems, planning of ways to solve problems, collection and organization of verified information, group action, and evaluation of the effectiveness of action and processes utilized by the group. The end result is a higher level of critical thinking, because each individual has shared his ideas with others and all ideas are tested in the crucible of group thinking.

PROBLEM SOLVING. The teacher must understand and use sound

problem-solving procedures if effective group action is to be achieved. First of all, it must be recognized that problems and situations vary from group to group and from individual to individual. Problems of one group may mean nothing at all to another. To be a real problem, the individuals in a group must be concerned about it, interested in solving it, and see sense in it. The problem should be meaningful to children in terms of the understandings involved, and significant in terms of its application and use. Each problem should be defined and discussed so that its various parts are clearly discerned and ways to solve it can be considered. Relationships to past experiences should be explored. After clear definition, ways of attacking the problem should be selected and used.

A variety of techniques should be used to gather and verify information, and all data should be organized in a manner which facilitates application and use. Misconceptions and errors should be considered and corrected as they arise, and steps should be taken to prevent future mistakes or misapplications. Through appraisal of cooperative action, evaluative evidence can be secured regarding the effectiveness of planning, utilization of techniques, and skill in using concepts and information, thus making evaluation practical and to the point.

In most situations in the social studies, problem solving includes such elements as

- 1 *Recognition and clarification of problems* through discussion of questions and problems raised by the group. Many questions and problems arise as an outcome of children's "exploring" an arranged environment in the classroom that is designed to open up key problems, seeing films and pictures, and listening to stories or recordings related to problems. Other questions and problems arise in daily activities.
- 2 *Group planning* on needed information, ways to secure information, procedures to use, and delegated responsibilities.
- 3 *Securing information* by experimenting, reading, processing materials, seeing demonstrations, taking excursions, using audio-visual materials, interviewing, listening to others, observing, and using library resources.
- 4 *Appraising and verifying information* by comparing sources, checking different findings, repeating the demonstration or experiment, reshowing the film, checking against past experience, consulting experts on points at issue, and "seeing if it works."

- 5 *Organizing and summarizing* information by means of directions, rules, group standards, maps, outlines, floor layouts, charts, plans for a program, and scrapbooks
- 6 *Decision making, and using information* in group action such as construction, dramatic play, art activities, rhythmic expression, composing songs, school programs, and exhibits
- 7 *Evaluating* decisions, processes, major outcomes, and effectiveness of group action by means of discussions, checklists, charts, standards, and other means of individual and group self-evaluation.

Although no hard and fast rules can be made regarding the sequence of steps in problem solving, the elements noted above are of basic importance. In most situations there is a rhythm of clarification of goals, planning of ways to achieve the goals, action in securing, verifying, organizing and using information, and cooperative evaluation of group action.

Before concluding this section, attention should be called to general characteristics of group problem solving which make group work different from individual work. Thorndike⁴ has noted the following:

- 1 The group typically brings a broader background of experience to a problem situation than does any single individual.
- 2 As a reflection of 1, the group is likely to produce more and more varied suggestions for dealing with a problem than will arise from a single individual.
- 3 The diversity of viewpoints is likely to be more representative of the larger population from which they were drawn than is the viewpoint of the single individual.
- 4 As diversity of background and interest within the group becomes greater, it becomes increasingly difficult to reach a real agreement among the members of the group as to the definition of the problem and the values to be served. Reconciliation of conflicting goals becomes a real problem.
- 5 Just as a group is likely to produce a greater range of suggestions, so also a group is likely to be more productive in criticism of proposals and bases for rejecting them.
- 6 Interstimulation is a distinctive feature of group effort. The suggestion by A, which is criticized by Y, serves as the stimulus to Z for a new and perhaps quite different suggestion.

⁴ Robert L. Thorndike, "How Children Learn the Principles and Techniques of Problem-Solving," *Education and Learning* Forty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1950, p. 209 (Quoted by permission of the Society.)



Oakland

The making of murals is one of many ways children can organize and summarize information obtained through problem solving. Can you plan for the use of this technique in a unit of your choice so that children will learn to select and use a variety of methods to summarize ideas?

7 Interpersonal dynamics becomes a significant element. The assertive, the dogmatic, and the persuasive individual—each plays a distinctive role.

STUDYING STATUS IN THE GROUP Simple sociometric techniques may be used to study social status and changes in social status as children engage in group activities. This may be done early in the term and again toward the middle or end of the term if an analysis of changes in status is to be made. By using sociometric techniques it is possible to determine cliques, most popular children, least popular children, leaders, and isolates. The information obtained through sociometric analysis can be used to plan discussions of group techniques, improve evaluation, organize more functional working groups, and provide opportunities for *neglectees* and *isolates* to earn prestige and a real place in the group. Of great importance is the teacher's increased understanding of the varying roles that children play and the dynamics that are involved in group activities.

Social status scores can be secured on each child in a given group and sociograms can be constructed to show various relationships. Olson has reported the use of a simple technique for giving a sociometric test and securing social status scores.¹ The children in a given group are asked to give three names of children in response to the following statements:

I would like best to *work* with these children

I would like best to *play* with these children

I would like best to have these children *sit* near me

The social status score is the number of choices received by each child. Students who are chosen by no other child are usually referred

¹ W. C. Olson *Child Development* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1949, pp. 196-203.

to as *isolates*, children with low scores are called *neglectees*, children with high scores are called *stars*.

Sociograms are helpful in visualizing social status. The teacher simply has each child write down the names of two or three children with whom he would most like to work on a given project, or the names of best friends, and so forth. A simple chart is then made showing the choices of individuals in the group. In the following simplified sociogram, girls are shown by triangles, boys are indicated by circles, and each child is represented by a number. The sociogram is read as follows. Girl 2 chose Girl 3, Boys 4 and 8 chose each other, Boy 6 chose Girl 6, and so forth. Girl 1 and Boy 1 are isolates, not chosen by anyone. Boys 7 and 8 are stars, as is Girl 7. There are no mutual choices between stars, but Girl 7, a star, chose Boy 8, also a star. Sex cleavage is obvious, since there are few choices between boys and girls.

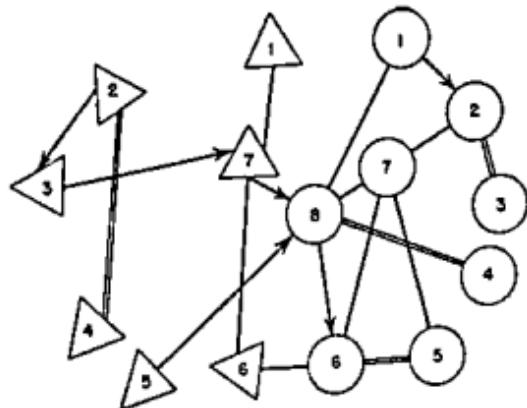


Chart 1

Other arrangements can be used to show various relationships.* For example, Olson* has used a series of four concentric circles which show children with highest scores in the central circle, children with decreasing scores in the second and third circles, and isolates and neglectees in the outer circle. By placing 25 per cent of the group in each circle, the various quartiles can be shown.

Because sociograms become too complicated with large groups, many teachers simply use social status scores. However, it is sometimes helpful to make a sociogram, as visualization of social status in a given group clearly reveals individual status and is helpful in case conferences.

* See *Sociometry*, May, 1947.

* Op. cit.

Sociometric techniques are helpful in grouping, forming committees, making plans to help isolates gain friends and prestige, and in improving social relationships. In all instances, however, it is necessary to do a careful study of the factors involved in a given child's status, as the sociogram and social status score simply identify the individuals in the group. For example, in one group studied by a teacher new to the school system, three isolates were located. One isolate was found to be a child who had recently moved from another city. With little effort, it was possible to arrange situations in which he could work with others and earn recognition from the group. Investigation revealed that the second child had been in the school for two years and had personality problems requiring the attention of experts in child study. The third child had problems that the teacher could handle through group work, and made steady growth in social adjustment during the school year.

GROUP PROCESS TECHNIQUES

The techniques involved in effective group processes are used extensively in each unit as it is developed with a given group of children. Outstanding among these are committees, group discussion, planning, action, evaluation, and use of democratic social attitudes. All of these should be viewed as an integral part of democratic group processes, not as separate, discrete elements. This is an essential consideration because effective group processes have a smoothly flowing, on going quality that blends the various elements into a continuum of related experiences.

FUNCTIONAL GROUPING Groups of various types and sizes are used in the social studies depending upon the problem to be solved, available space, equipment and materials, and needs developed in planning. All members of the group should work together during such experiences as planning, taking excursions using audio visual materials, sharing reports, and evaluation. Small groups may be used during such experiences as making a mural, writing script for a play, writing letters making a wall map, or doing research on a given topic. Small groups of this type provide many opportunities for developing leadership and followership qualities. At other times small groups may be organized to provide help on special needs such as reading, outlining use of tools or interviewing. Finally, individual responsibilities may be delegated such as research on a special topic, preparation of a report, making a loom, interviewing an expert, or designing a costume.

COMMITTEES In forming small groups or committees attention should be given to several factors. The chairman should be selected by the group after due consideration of needed qualifications. Clear plans should be formulated and checked prior to the beginning of committee work. The committee should be composed of a congenial working group, balanced in terms of needed abilities and talents, and interested in the job that is to be done. Provision should be made for needed materials, adequate working space, and sufficient time to make an effective beginning or to complete the job. Work standards should be developed beforehand and used by the committee as responsibilities are carried out.

It is important for each committee member to know what to do so that confusion, excessive noise, and disorganization can be avoided. Many teachers find it helpful to give a demonstration of good committee work after real needs have arisen for guidance. This can be done by selecting a group to demonstrate for the class, or by using the class as a committee with the teacher as chairman. Standards should be developed and placed on the chalkboard or on charts as real needs for standards are sensed by members of the class. Charts 2, 3, and 4 are illustrative.

COMMITTEE MEMBERS

- 1 Know what do do
- 2 Divide the work
- 3 Do each job well
- 4 Discuss problems quietly
- 5 Plan the report carefully

Chart 2

COMMITTEE REPORTS

- 1 Stick to the questions
- 2 Use pictures, objects, and maps
- 3 Be ready to answer questions

Chart 3

COMMITTEE CHAIRMEN

- 1 Keep the main job in mind
- 2 Get ideas from all members
- 3 See that each member has a job
- 4 Be fair and don't talk all the time
- 5 Urge everyone to do his best.
- 6 Say *our* committee, not *my* committee

Chart 4



Burbank

Committee reports can be made more effective and more interesting by employing cooperative reporting techniques. Note the use of the map to indicate places being discussed. In what ways may other resources be used to improve reporting to the group?

As established committees proceed with their work, the teacher should move from committee to committee. Guidance should be given as needed; points should be noted for use in evaluation; suggestions for improving reports by using pictures, charts, maps, and the like may be suggested; and the interest and seriousness of each child in being a good committee worker should be noted and commended. Through careful observation and direct guidance as committees work, it is possible to bring about rapid growth in cooperative techniques in functional situations. And this is really what is needed: competence in significant group activities set up to achieve vital purposes!

DISCUSSION. Discussion is one of the most valuable techniques used in democratic group action. Its use is essential to effective clarification of goals, planning, and evaluation. Discussion provides a prac-

tical opportunity to develop a group feeling as children engage in various experiences in the social studies. Social amenities are put to practical use, critical thinking is sharpened, and attention is focused upon common problems. Attention is given to problems, questions, and interests which arise in the daily program. Ideas are shared, points of view are expressed, leaders are selected, responsibilities are delegated, and respect is shown for the right of others to express themselves. Discussion is truly an essential technique of democratic education.

Group discussion provides opportunities for the teacher to note children's behavior as they think and plan together. Creativeness of contributions, sharing of ideas, respect for the opinions of others, consideration of differing points of view, shyness, boldness, and the like can be observed and given attention as individual needs arise. Many teachers find discussion situations to be a most valuable source of information regarding children's needs, potentialities, and backgrounds.

The teacher's role in group discussion is of crucial importance. An informal atmosphere is essential. Respect should be given to each child's contributions and group decisions should be respected. Shy children should be given encouragement and children who tend to monopolize the discussion should be guided in learning to share discussion time with others. The major problem to be discussed should be clarified and kept in mind throughout. Questions, illustrations, and comments should be called for as particular items need clarification. Adequate time must be given for thinking about points that are made and questions that are raised. To be avoided are such pitfalls as not sticking to the point, failure to clarify the problem, waste of time on side issues, repetitious comments, embarrassment of participants because of rejection of contributions, omission of key ideas, and domination of the discussion by a few individuals. If a summary of the discussion is essential, it may be recorded on the chalkboard or on a chart for use by the group. The spirit of group discussions should always be one of mutual interest and helpfulness. Emphasis should be given to the development of a feeling typified by such expressions as "Let's talk it over," "What's the best thing to do?" "How can we help each other?" In no instance should the mechanics, techniques, or evaluation of discussion interfere with the development and maintenance of fine group feelings.

A point needing emphasis is the role of the teacher (or discussion leader) in securing maximum participation of members of the group. In too many situations, discussion is simply a conversation between

the teacher and individuals in the group. For example, the teacher raises a question and gets a response, the teacher responds and another child contributes, this is followed by a rhythm of teacher to child to teacher to child, and so on, with the teacher making 50 to 95 per cent of the contributions. In sharp contrast is the situation in which the teacher makes a contribution and several children make comments before the teacher or the leader intervenes.¹⁰ Charts 5 and 6 illustrate this point. The rectangle represents the teacher (or leader) and the circles represent the participants. The lines indicate the flow of discussion from one individual to another. Chart 5 illustrates teacher (or leader) domination, Chart 6 illustrates group interaction.

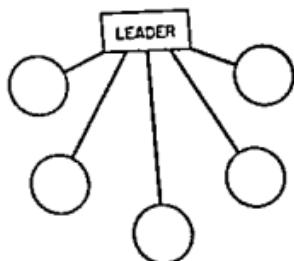


Chart 5

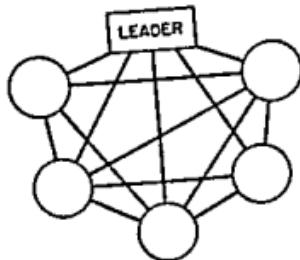


Chart 6

Sometimes it is wise to have children lead the discussion, particularly in intermediate and upper grades. When this is done, attention must be given beforehand to the development of guidelines for leading the discussion. This may be illustrated by considering Chart 7,

DISCUSSION LEADERS

- 1 Call the group to order
- 2 Clear up the problem
- 3 Get ideas from the group
- 4 Have the secretary keep notes
- 5 Call on different children
- 6 Stick to the point
- 7 Get answers to questions from the group
- 8 Summarize the discussion.

Chart 7

¹⁰ Adapted from Olson, *op. cit.*, p. 194-195, who refers to these two types of group relationships as "coaction" and "interaction."

which was developed by a group in Grade V in order to meet specific problems that had arisen

Evaluation of discussion should be carried on by both the teacher and the group with specific attention given to points and problems that have arisen. The teacher should keep in mind the essential elements of effective discussion and the maturity of the children. The discussion itself can be appraised in terms of the following:¹¹

Goal

- 1 To what extent was the goal understood?
- 2 To what extent was discussion halted by lack of information?
- 3 Was the goal reached?

Motivation

- 1 Were all of the group equally interested in the problem?
- 2 Was interest maintained?
- 3 Did the group feel united by a common purpose?
- 4 Were individual interests subordinated to the common goal?

Participation

- 1 Was participation general?
- 2 Were contributions to the point?
- 3 Were contributions factual or biased?

DISCUSSION

- 1 Take turns.
- 2 Help make plans
- 3 Listen to others

PRIMARY

Chart 8

DISCUSSION

- 1 Help state the problem
- 2 Give your ideas
- 3 Consider other ideas
- 4 Listen carefully
- 5 Help to make a plan

INTERMEDIATE

Chart 9

DISCUSSION

- 1 State problems clearly
- 2 Stick to the point
- 3 Respect ideas of others
- 4 Make a contribution
- 5 Weigh the evidence
- 6 Raise questions on issues
- 7 Help in making decisions
- 8 Help in summarizing

UPPER

Chart 10

¹¹ New York City Schools Curriculum and Materials New York Board of Education 3-4-5 February 1949

GROWTH IN DISCUSSION

Note Check each child two or three times during the semester to see if growth is taking place.

Behaviors to be Checked	Names of Children				
Understands the problem					
Listens while others speak					
Is an interested and willing listener					
Interjects ideas at appropriate points					
Considers ideas contrary to his own					
Sticks to the topic					
Does not repeat ideas given by others					
Gets to the point without delay					
Speaks clearly and distinctly					
Uses appropriate language					
Uses concepts accurately					
Is interested in comments of others					

The maturity of the group is an essential consideration in guiding and evaluating group discussion. Charts, checklists, and group evaluation should take levels of growth into account. The charts on p. 171, designed as guides to direct and evaluate growth in discussion ability, show how adaptations can be made to groups at various stages of development.

Our Top
And if we do
a what to me
The back of it
The back of weight
3 how the produce a
4 how the truck a



Los Angeles

Group planning is prerequisite to effective group action. How can you use group planning in a unit of work?

In addition to evaluation carried on by the group the teacher must consider each child's role in discussion so that effective planning and guidance can be carried out. The checklist on p. 172 suggests several points that should be kept in mind as each child's growth in discussion ability is considered. Others may be added or some may be deleted depending upon the maturity of the group and the specific needs requiring attention.

GROUP PLANNING Group planning of ways to achieve goals is essential in democratic group action.¹² How to solve a problem what to do next and delegation of responsibilities are key aspects of planning. Many ideas and procedures are suggested as children formulate goals and purposes. Others emerge as the children define the problem.

¹² For a good analysis with applications at various levels and in many situations see Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Planning in Education* on Washington, D.C. National Education Association, 1945.

consider needed materials, raise questions, discover difficulties, try out various proposals, and evaluate progress. Out of planning discussions are developed the specific procedures and responsibilities essential to the achievement of group-made goals.

In guiding group planning, cooperative procedures should be used. All members of the group should participate and the unique contributions of each individual should be sought. Needs and purposes that have grown out of group activity should be given attention. Suggestions regarding needed information and material should be considered and evaluated by the group. Work standards, individual responsibilities, and small-group responsibilities should be discussed and agreed upon. Differences of opinion need consideration and efforts should be made to secure a consensus. Experimentation may require consideration if two or more procedures of equivalent worth are proposed. Records such as charts, notes, directions, and minutes should be kept as needed to guide activities.

Planning and replanning as new problems arise are features of effective group action.¹³ Initial planning is carried out in group discussion with special attention to questions, problems, and responsibilities. Replanning is necessary as new needs arise and as special problems are presented for consideration. Both initial planning and replanning should involve more than a search for sources of information. For example, attention may well be given to such items as formulating problems, devising ways to secure data, setting up work standards, deciding on things to construct, considering ways to secure and use materials, overcoming obstacles, helping others, extending interests, investigating proposals, submitting suggestions, asking for help, and finding out about opinions and ideas of others. Planning is also essential in getting ready for research activities, construction, dramatic play, processing of materials, field trips, and creative expression through art, music, literature, and rhythms (several concrete examples of planning appear on pages 356-358 and 380-382).

In guiding group planning, the teacher should keep the following principles in mind:

1. All should share in planning so that the best ideas of each member of the group are brought to bear upon the problem
2. Problems and needs expressed by the children should receive major attention. Neglected problems can be called to the attention of the group by the teacher.

¹³ For a good analysis of group planning see, H. H. Giles, *Teacher-Pupil Planning*, New York, Harper & Brothers, 1941.

- 3 The teacher should create a feeling of freedom and responsiveness by showing utmost respect for each child and his contributions
- 4 Constructive suggestions should be secured from the group, negative comments should be redirected into positive suggestions
- 5 Techniques of clear thinking are essential, examples are getting the problem clearly in mind hearing all suggestions, accepting best suggestions forming tentative conclusions, determining needs for additional information and sources of information and basing plans of action upon sound conclusions
- 6 The teacher, or leader, should participate (without dominating) as encouragement is needed impasses are reached or too difficult problems arise
- 7 Standards for planning should be developed and used as needs arise
- 8 Records should be made and kept as needed to further group action, examples are charts, directions reading guides, work sheets notes, and minutes
- 9 Group decisions growing out of planning should lead to specific plans of action
- 10 Group planning is effective when each child understands what he is to do knows where he is to do it, knows what tools and materials he is to use, knows how to proceed with his work, understands group made standards, knows where to get help if problems arise and knows with whom he is to work

GROUP ACTION Group action growing out of planning is most effective when each individual carries out his responsibilities in line with group purposes After planning is completed, individual and small group responsibilities should be accepted and carried out with dispatch A willingness to help others and to secure help when needed is essential Each individual should work as a member of the group, hold to plans, endeavor to understand the role of others, and control his behavior with reference to established goals Available time and materials should be used wisely and in accordance with group plans

As children engage in group work, the teacher should observe carefully in order to get information for use in group evaluation Attention should be given to acceptance of responsibilities, cooperation, courtesy, and self control Attention should also be given to the various materials that are being used, techniques that need to be improved, and misconceptions, erroneous ideas and errors that arise

As children engage in group work the teacher has many opportunities to move about and to give help as needed A child may be having difficulty in locating material in a given reference, or some children may be having difficulty using tools and materials By giving

judicious assistance, the teacher can make sure that effective learning takes place. For example, in a unit on Pioneer Life, one teacher noticed during a research period that several youngsters were having difficulty in using the table of contents. Others were not sure of the topics to locate in the index. Notes were made of these items and they became important problems in a later discussion that centered upon skills involved in the location of materials. Another example can be taken from a construction period in which model covered wagons were being made. The teacher noticed that several children were not holding the saws correctly, some were not using the C-clamps to hold boards properly, and others were having difficulty in selecting appropriate materials. The teacher moved about the room and gave suggestions as such needs were detected. By giving help at a point of real need, richer learning was possible for each child.

The way in which children utilize the work standards which they have helped to formulate should also be noted by the teacher. Commendation should be given to those children who are carrying out group-made standards and who help others to do so. In some cases the teacher may find it necessary to ask a child to stop an activity for a few minutes until he has thought through the significance of group standards with reference to his own behavior. In a few instances, some children must be excluded from the group until they realize that they must accept all of the responsibilities involved in the activity. Following the work period, time should be given to a careful reconsideration of the group standards and ways in which they can be used by each member of the group.

Particular attention must be given to those few youngsters who appear to be at a loss as to just what they should do in a given activity. If the planning period has been carefully organized, there will be very few children who do not have clear purposes in mind. During the work period, be it research, dramatic play, or construction, the teacher may find it necessary to give further guidance to certain children who do not have clear purposes in mind. Frequently children in the room volunteer to help others who aren't sure what they should do to complete a given activity. This is a good indication of cooperative behavior and should be encouraged by the teacher. Careful planning, however, at the beginning of the work period is the most effective technique to use in order to assure active participation on the part of all members of the group.

The ways in which members of the group use materials should also be noted. Courtesy and sharing taking turns, proper use of tools,

proper selection of material, and the ways in which children help others use materials are of particular importance. Toward the end of the work period materials and equipment should be put in their proper places. Careful attention should also be given to the clean up period and placement of materials in cupboards. The learnings that grow out of the proper care of materials are important and should not be neglected in group work.

GROUP EVALUATION Group evaluation is an essential element in all phases of democratic group action from initial definition of problems to appraisal of the effectiveness of group work. Through evaluation the group answers such questions as "Is each individual doing his part?" "Are the plans effective?" "Are leadership responsibilities being carried out?" "Are our goals being achieved?" "Are additional resources needed?" "What next steps should be taken?" In making appraisals the group may use discussions and charts or checklists, refer to a log or diary of activities, secure assistance from an observer (usually the teacher in the social studies), examine work materials, or use other evaluative devices (see Chapter 15).

Through group evaluation the teacher guides the children to a critical consideration of the key problems that have arisen in a given work period. The children themselves should make suggestions for the improvement of their work, for better use of materials, and for a better application of group standards that have been set. New purposes and goals should be established, needs for other materials and tools should be considered, and next steps should be charted. Much self-evaluation by the pupils themselves is essential.

The following evaluation discussion grew out of research activities undertaken in order to make maps of travel routes for a unit on the Westward Movement. Different individuals had assumed responsibilities and an excellent research period had just been completed.

Teacher Let's share the different things that we found out about the routes of the pioneers, and consider the next steps that we should take.

Child A I could find only one reference book on the Oregon Trail.

Child B I think there are two others in the other bookcase.

Child C I thought we agreed to keep all of the references on the trails in this one.

Child B We did but someone forgot.

Child D It would help if we'd keep them all in the same place.

Teacher Let's all remember to return them to the place that we decided we would use. What trails have you located?

Child E I found something about the Sante Fe Trail

Child A What places did it go through?

Child E I haven't been able to find that out yet.

Teacher Perhaps we should make a note of that and other items that we need to find out.

Child G Why don't we keep a list on the board as we did in the other unit?

Teacher I think that is a good suggestion John, would you be our recorder and put them on the board as the other students make their suggestions?

Child H I will be glad to keep a list on paper at my seat so we'll have a written record

Teacher That will be very helpful

Through similar evaluation discussions, the teacher can appraise cooperative efforts and help children determine ways and means of improving group action. Undoubtedly much of the learning that is secured through this process is more valuable than the many interesting and important items of information that are learned. One of the major outcomes is the ability to work and think together and to share ideas related to significant purposes established by the group.

DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR

Through cooperative group action, each child should develop increasingly higher levels of democratic behavior. In fact, cooperation, responsibility, concern for others, creativeness, and open mindedness should permeate each group activity. A review of these categories of behavior (as presented in Chapter 1) should be made at this time with a special emphasis upon ways in which they may be developed in committee work, discussion and other types of group work presented in this chapter. If this is done, solid progress will be made in developing democratic behavior, and maximum value will be derived from group work.

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1 Consider group techniques in the light of a unit of work you are planning. In what ways can you use the techniques suggested in this chapter?

2 What are some limitations of group techniques in the social studies? What are some dangers in overemphasizing them to the neglect

of individual skills and responsibilities? How can teachers plan for a balance between individual and group work so that both are strengthened?

3 Reread the steps in problem solving on pages 161-162. How can you use each step in a unit you are planning? Can you relate the various steps to specific problems and questions that will arise in the unit? Be practical and specific in your analysis.

4 Use the sociometric techniques suggested by Olson to study the group structure in the classroom in which you are teaching, or in one in which you are observing. Derive practical implications for planning and teaching.

5 Which of the suggestions made regarding committees are apropos of a group of children you are teaching or observing? Are there other points that are more pertinent because of specific problems that have arisen in their committee work? Always endeavor to make specific adaptations to the particular children with whom you are working.

6 Consider the section on discussion techniques in the same light as suggested immediately above. What changes or adaptations should be made?

7 Reread the sections on group planning, group action, and group evaluation. Is the teacher's role clear? Visit a classroom and observe a teacher in action guiding a group of children in planning and evaluation. Which techniques were used? Was guidance given to individual children? How were individual questions handled? Was commendation used to accentuate desirable behavior? Were specific points brought out in evaluation in a constructive manner? What points did you gain through the observation?

8 One of the best ways to evaluate group process skills is through directed observation. Reread the section in Chapter 1 in which democratic behaviors are presented. List one or two pertinent items of behavior under each heading—cooperation, responsibility, etc. Use this list as a guide to observe a group of children at work in the social studies. Which individuals are making sound growth? Which appear to be making little growth? What group activities can be provided to bring about improvement?

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AN OVERVIEW OF INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

Materials of instruction are vital components of learning experiences in the social studies. The social learnings resultant from the child's interaction with his environment are limited to a large degree by the materials with which he interacts. A dull, drab environment devoid of adequate materials offers very limited experiences as compared with one in which a variety of carefully selected instructional resources are used. In a balanced social studies program, the following types of instructional resources are used:

Community resources—field trips, resource visitors, persons to interview, field studies, service projects and surveys.

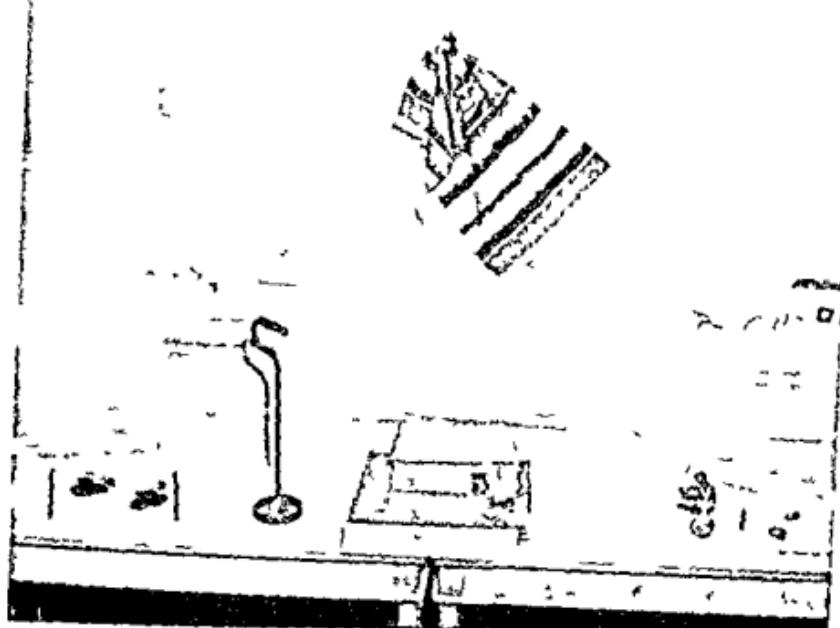
Audio-visual materials—models, specimens, objects, pictures, film strips, slides, motion pictures, recordings, radio, television, maps, globes, charts, graphs, and diagrams.

Construction, dramatic representation, and creative expression through art, music, and literature.

Reading materials—textbooks, references, encyclopedias, magazines, pamphlets and newspapers.

In this chapter attention is given to principles and procedures essential to effective selection and utilization of instructional resources. A point of view is developed as a frame of reference for considering the place of instructional materials in the social studies program. General guidelines applicable to all types of instructional resources are discussed. In subsequent chapters attention is given to specific techniques and procedures for the selection and utilization of community resources, audio-visual materials, construction, dramatic representation, and reading materials.

The significance of instructional resources and their utilization



Alameda County

A combination of children's drawings, models, objects, and labels was used to make this display depicting life on a rancho in early California. Why do materials used in this way help to make the past real and meaningful for children?

may be brought home sharply by considering the behavior of children studying Pioneer Life in two different situations recently visited by the writer. In one class, a basic textbook was being followed rather dogmatically, written exercises were required, and oral discussion was used to answer questions raised by the teacher. The children appeared to be uninterested and very little learning was in evidence. Communication of ideas was faulty and uncertain, concepts were being used inaccurately, several children seemed to dislike the social studies, and not one of them made comments which suggested that a real appreciation of living during the times of the pioneers was being developed. In addition, little related work was brought in, the general attitude of the group was poor, and information and understandings as measured by tests were below reasonable expectancies. In another class, in which a variety of materials was being used effectively—pictures, pictorial maps, films, several texts, realia, attractive bulletin boards, and materials for construction—a different atmosphere existed. Eager children were hard at work, dramatic play, construction, dis-

cussion, planning, and reporting were on a high level, concepts were being used effectively, attitudes toward the work being done were wholesome and positive, and significant learning was taking place according to test results and appraisals made by observation. Although many factors contributed to the differences between these two groups a major one was the way in which instructional resources were being utilized.

What, then, is the place of materials in the social studies program? How should they be used to secure maximum learning? Let us give first consideration to a few basic guidelines that can be applied to all types of resources.

BASIC GUIDELINES

Materials of instruction, like methods of instruction, should be used to achieve specific purposes. They must be selected and used so that maximum learning is possible for children. Only those that contribute to the solution of problems and the achievement of purposes of a given group of children are appropriate for that group. The time allotted to the social studies is too short to bring in extraneous gadgets, devices books or other materials that do not contribute to the purposes of the program. If the goals of the social studies are to be achieved considerable attention must be given to the selection and use of instructional materials.

Types of questions that teachers must raise when considering an instructional resource include

- What specific purposes can be achieved by using this resource?
- Can growth in the child's insight into democratic behavior and group processes be secured by using this resource?
- What attitudes, appreciations and interests may be modified?
- What concepts understandings and functional information can children develop through its use?
- Will the social functions be made more meaningful?
- Can communicative ability, research skills and problem-solving ability be strengthened?

All too frequently attention is centered exclusively upon the facts presented, many other key learnings are overlooked. Each function of the social studies must be analyzed to determine the specific contributions that the use of selected materials may make to it.

This principle may be illustrated by considering ways in which motion pictures may contribute to the improvement of skill in critical

By-products of Trees

paper pulp



film coating



turpentine



chicle gum



celluloid



corks



fibre board



rubber



CANADA

I Location, in relation to:

- a United States
- b North America
- c South America
- d The hemisphere
- e Continents
- f Poles

II Physical Features

- a mountains
- b lakes

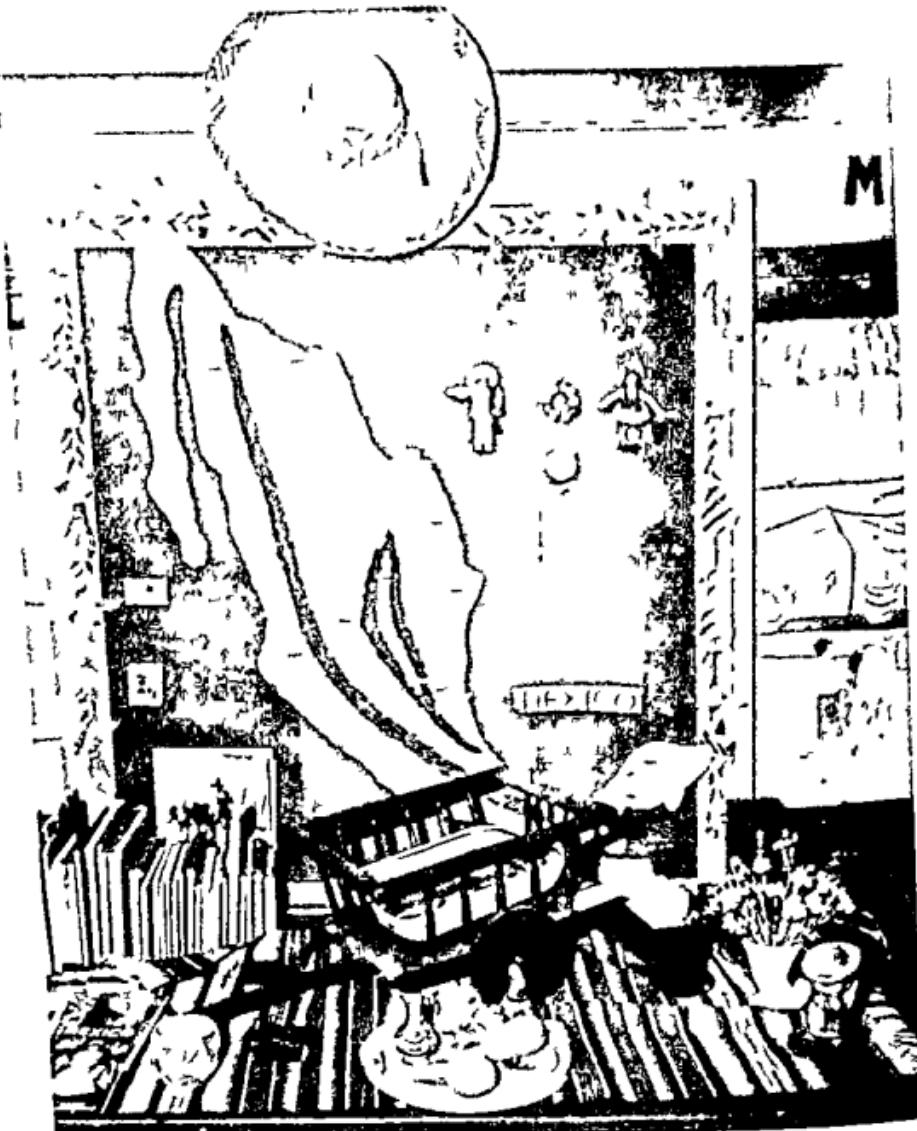
Los Angeles

Teacher-made charts can be used to define problems, summarize key ideas, present information, and guide evaluation. Try to anticipate ways in which you can use charts in a unit. See Chapter 12 for specific suggestions.

thinking. Children should be guided to discover how questions and problems are elaborated, opened up, and clarified in the film. How are the ideas presented, organized, and summarized? Do the conclusions, suggestions, or content square with other sources of information? Propaganda effects, use of props, use of music to produce various effects, and related emotion-stimulating devices should be considered in the light of such questions as: "Do they affect our judgment and stimulate an emotional reaction?" "Are our judgments and conclusions distorted?" "Are there ideas that we can use to improve our own skill in thinking?" It may be necessary to reshew the film in order to reconsider these and similar questions.

The varying levels of concreteness of experience with materials should be recognized. Dale's¹ analysis of materials in terms of levels of abstractness from direct experience to experiences with verbal

¹ Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*, New York: The Dryden Press, 1954, pp. 42-56.



Richmond, California

Maps and other items made by children should be used in arranging displays. Can you think of other ways to use resources made by children in a unit you are planning?

symbols is helpful in considering instructional resources. He proposes the following order of decreasing directness of experiences, pointing out that the categories are somewhat overlapping:

1. *Direct, purposeful experience*—gardening, making something, weaving
2. *Contrived experience*—operating a working model.

- 3 *Dramatic participation*—identification of self with others by participating in a play, tableau or pageant, observing a play is on the next level
- 4 *Demonstration*—observing as someone demonstrates a process or activity, a more direct type of experience if followed by doing
- 5 *Field trip*—observing people at work or processes in a natural setting, more direct if interviewing is included
- 6 *Exhibits*—seeing planned arrangements of materials, more direct if working models are used
- 7 *Motion pictures and television*—watching a planned series of pictures with action and movement involved
- 8 *Still pictures, radio, recordings*—seeing or hearing, these are one-dimensional aids
- 9 *Visual symbols*—charts, graphs and maps
- 10 *Verbal symbols*—processes of reading writing speaking listening

Dale² goes on to point out that his list does not necessarily refer to the best type of experience to provide, it simply suggests an order of concreteness. The teacher must determine the best for a given class on the basis of maturity of the children, available time, problems that have arisen, availability of materials, and the unit of work being developed.

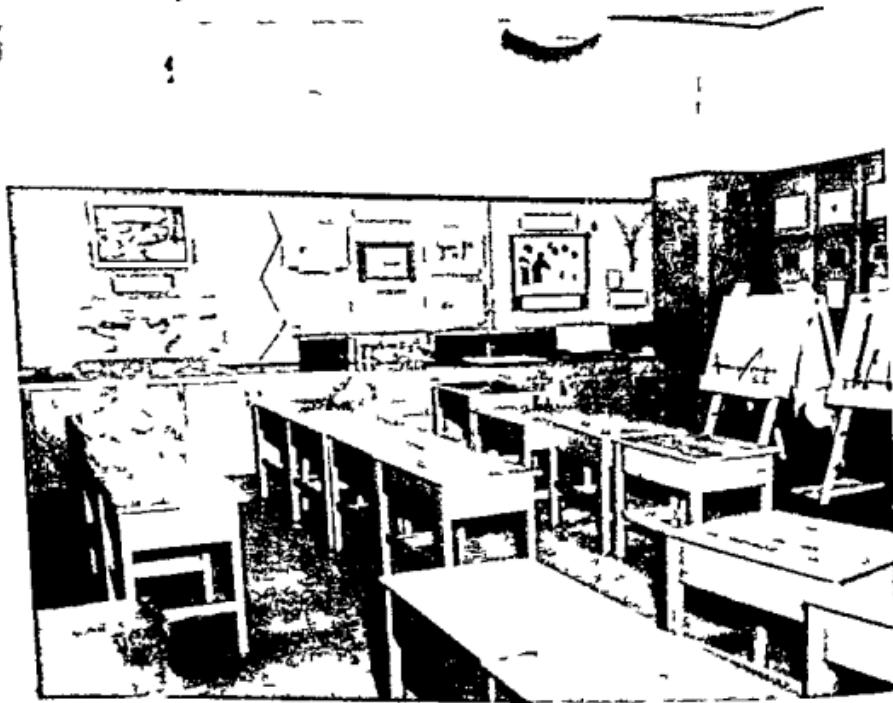
*The classroom should be viewed as a laboratory—a planned environment—to stimulate learning.*³ Materials should be arranged in such a way as to focus the child's attention on key problems and questions. Different types of materials should be selected and used so that the classroom environment will help to move the thinking and planning of the group in profitable directions. The total over all arrangement of the room, as well as the separate sections of the room such as the reading corner or bulletin board, should receive attention. Balance, timing, selectivity, and artistic arrangement are desirable. When the classroom is viewed as an arranged environment, a laboratory for social experiences, then instructional resources are used effectively.

The use of materials should be viewed as an integral part of the sequence of experiences in the unit of work. A study trip, textbook, pamphlet, moving picture, or film strip should be selected as needed to solve real-to-the-child problems. The smoother the transition from

² *Ibid.*

³ G. L. Anderson, Gertrude Whipple and Robert Gilchrist, "The School as a Learning Laboratory," *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1950, pp. 336-348.

problems, to solution of problems, to new problems, the more effective is the program in promoting learning. This may be illustrated in a unit on the Dairy Farm in which real need had arisen for the construction of a simple floor layout of a dairy farm, including barn, barnyard, and silo, to be used in dramatic play. Through group planning it was decided to visit a nearby dairy farm in order to secure ideas that could be used to make the floor layout. The teacher had observed many needs in dramatic play, and realized that a field trip would be the most helpful experience at the time. The problems involved were clarified through group planning and the trip was taken to secure information needed by the group. Following the trip to the farm, the group arranged the floor layout after making a corral and constructing some trucks to use in dramatic play. It should be emphasized that the making of the floor layout was done to satisfy the need for dramatic play, and not just to make a layout to show someone that the class could make layouts. The dramatic play was being carried out so that



Albany, California

Note the arrangement of desks, easels, and other facilities in this classroom. It is relatively easy to work out different space arrangements to provide for group work. Can you think of changes that might be made to suit various purposes?

the children could identify themselves with life on the dairy farm. Thus, in addition to the field trip, many other experiences and related materials were involved, such as floor layout, pictures, construction, and dramatic play. All of these were part of a smooth sequence of experiences, not one was brought in as a "sideshow."

In order to assure continuity of learning the teacher must become well acquainted with the potentialities of various types of materials. Books, films, film strips, records, field trips—in fact, all materials of learning—must be explored or previewed before they are used in order to determine their possible contribution to experiences in the unit. Only then can they be related directly and immediately to needs of the class. For example, in the unit on the Dairy Farm mentioned above, the teacher had visited the dairy and knew that it was not too complex in organization for children in primary grades, that seeing the corral, barn, and silo would clarify key concepts, and that it was not beyond the maturity of the group. There is no substitute for firsthand experience on the part of the teacher to assure a real acquaintanceship with materials of learning.

Children must be ready for the use of selected instructional materials if maximum learning is to be achieved. A key question is "Have real-to-the-child needs and problems arisen, or is the teacher trying to drag or push the materials into the program?" In a program in which children are moving from one experience to another as needs arise, the teacher is building the finest kind of readiness. Real readiness exists when teachers guide children in such a way that they raise such questions and comments as

Could we visit an airport to see how the planes are dispatched?
Let's see that film strip again to see the loading of the planes.

These pictures show how a plane is loaded.
Where are the pictures we saw yesterday? We need to check

up on something.
What books have ideas on this?

In a live, dynamic program guided by a skillful teacher, readiness for new materials grows out of dramatic play, construction, research, discussion, planning, and evaluation. It is only in an artificial, teacher-imposed program that the teacher must go to great length to prepare the pupils for the material. This does not mean that adequate and skillful preparation need not be made for each type of material or experience, it simply means that there should be a real need for the



University Elementary School,
University of California at Los Angeles

Stand-patter dolls in authentic costumes add to the realism of an arranged environment.

use of the material or experience, and that children are made aware of the need.

Group planning, discussion, and evaluation are effective approaches to use in developing readiness for materials. Children should develop skill in the selection and use of materials and procedures as well as in getting facts and ideas from them. A persistent question is: "What devices and materials can be used to meet this need?" Critical thinking will be improved as children grow in ability to make more intelligent choices of sources of information. Children should also be given opportunities to evaluate the effectiveness of the materials in communicating ideas. If this is done, improvement in processes of problem solving, as well as in the learning of information, will be achieved.

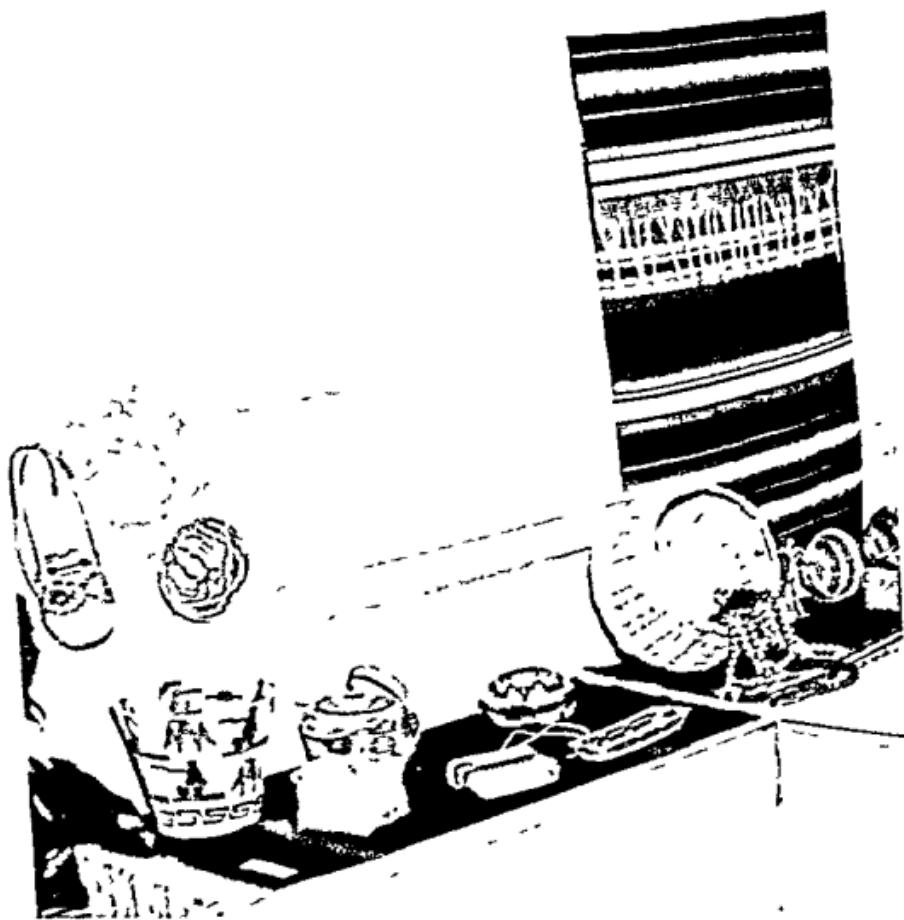
Maximum learning can be secured only if plans are carefully made for the use of materials. Two types of planning are essential. First, the teacher should plan a unit in which major topics or problems with related experiences and materials are sketched. This sets the use

of materials in proper perspective, and enables the teacher to think through the selection, timing, and appropriateness of materials for different needs and problems. Secondly, attention must be given to the specific details involved in the use of different materials. The teacher must make sure that needed equipment is available, distracting elements are eliminated, purposes are clear, and necessary arrangements are made. For example, a field trip may be ruined if the guide has no knowledge of the purposes and level of understanding of the class. In order to prevent such difficulties, the teacher must plan specifically for the use of all materials.

Contrast the example of the class studying the Dairy Farm mentioned above with another class which is studying the same unit. The children enter and hear a record of animals on the farm, it is interesting but is not related to significant needs and problems of the group. The teacher reads a short story which is followed by coloring on dittoed sheets. This is "old stuff," but the children do it, they like the teacher. The "pictures" are put on the bulletin board. On the next day the children read a story silently and draw other pictures. On the following day a film strip is shown and discussed. This, too, has been done before. Children also tell about farms they have seen because the teacher asks them to. The pattern continues with the children engaging in a disconnected series of experiences in which various aids and activities are brought in rather haphazardly without real to-the-child needs for their use.

Think of the increased value that would result if the use of the materials were based on real needs and on real problems. How much richer the learning would be if the sequence of experiences flowed naturally from one to the other as needs and problems changed. Yes, indeed! The teacher's role in planning for the employment of instructional resources becomes increasingly significant as new materials are utilized in the social studies program.

New experiences with materials must be related to the child's background of experience in such a way that continuity of learning is assured. There should be no gaps in learning. Concepts, generalizations, attitudes, and other social learnings grow and develop as related experiences extend and enrich them. Strands of meaning built up in firsthand experiences become the child's background for comparing, distinguishing, and thinking about faraway places and past events. Discussion, questioning, research, dramatic play, construction, and varied expression should be used to relate new materials and learnings to previous learnings. Maps may be related to previous experiences by



Los Angeles

Note the eye-catching quality in this display. Why do you think children will find it attractive? What are some of the questions children might ask about the objects shown?

means of films, pictures, and stories. Finally, by planning and developing a series of related experiences in which materials are used as problems arise, the teacher assures continuity of learning.

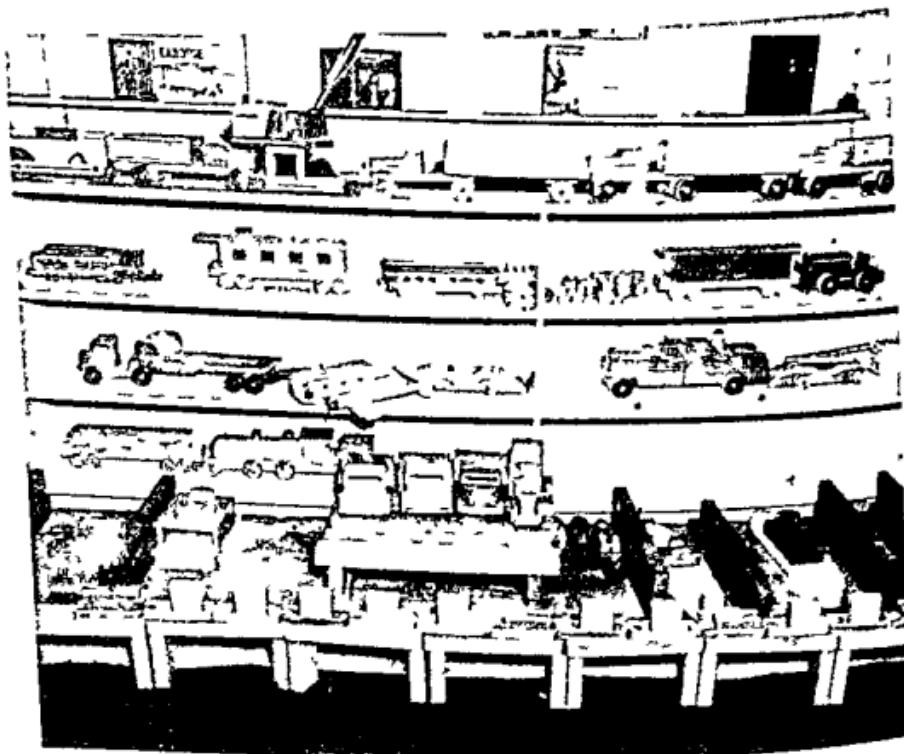
Equipment and materials used in the program should not draw attention away from significant social learnings. This has occurred in units on Indians and Pioneers in which *realia* such as tomahawks, knives, and tomahawks have been used for simulated wars and scalpings during a major part of the study. It has occurred in studies of Mexico in which there was an overemphasis upon recordings and films related to forces and folk dances. This is not a plea for the elimination of materials; it is a plea for emphasis upon significant outcomes in the

use of materials. Materials must contribute to learning, not detract from it! All materials should provide rich experiences and lead to new experiences and interests so that significant social learning takes place as each unit of work is developed.

Follow up activities should flow naturally and reasonably out of each experience. Artificial assignments such as a test after each film should be avoided. The intelligent thing to do next may be dramatic play, construction, discussion, related reading, or the use of various media in art. What if the children who took the trip to the farm had returned to take a test on animals they had seen? Would this be related to the purposes of the excursion? Would this lead to a satisfaction of needs or the solution of their real problem? No! It simply would have been an artificial assignment based upon an outmoded conception of social learning as mere fact-getting.

Arbitrary rules of procedure cannot be followed dogmatically in the utilization of materials. In applying general rules for the use of field trips, films, recordings or other types of materials, the teacher must exert sound judgment and make independent decisions as problems arise. For example, in one situation a teacher was unable to make specific plans prior to a radio program related to a unit on Growth of Democracy. In spite of this, the program was used most effectively because the teacher made careful notes during the program. While this type of deviation from recommended procedure should be avoided, in this instance it appeared to be the intelligent thing to do. Rules for using films, manuals which accompany film strips, radio guides, and the like are suggestive only, and creative teachers use them or modify them, depending upon the situation.

Materials should be organized and arranged in a systematic manner if maximum utilization is to be secured. One of the most effective ways to organize materials in the social studies is to place those related to a given unit in a kit in the sequence in which they will most likely be used. For example, in planning a unit on Mexico the related pictures, pamphlets, reference lists, construction plans, names of films and recordings, possible excursions and other materials or plans for their use, can easily be filed in a kit under appropriate headings. If certain items cannot be included, such as large realia and films, they should be noted in the unit plan with procedures for securing them. Each kit should be accompanied by a unit plan in which possible experiences and related materials are listed. The teacher may then use them as needs and problems arise. A variety of materials adequate to meet the individual differences of the class should also be included.



Albany, California

Young children need a variety of manipulative materials for use in experiences designed to improve the quality of social living. They also need a place to keep them so that they can develop responsibility for the care of materials. How might these be used in dramatic play?

Kits of this type have been found to be practical and helpful by many teachers.

A wide variety of materials is needed to promote social learning. It is impossible to use a single type of material and secure a meaningful solution to problems and needs that arise in the social studies. For example, in attempting to secure a realistic understanding of the way in which covered wagons were constructed and used, one group engaged in reading, looked at pictures, took a trip to the museum, examined realia, and actually constructed some models. In order to develop an appreciation of the difficulties of the pioneers in moving westward, use was made of films, film strips, maps, pictures, and reading materials. Similarly, other problems and topics in the social studies require the use of a variety of materials and procedures.

Materials of instruction should be evaluated before, during, and after utilization Appraisal of materials is an essential aspect of selection and utilization Only those materials that meet sound criteria should be selected for use in the program Guidelines for selection are presented in the following section Once materials are selected, their contribution to the program should be appraised critically to determine whether or not continued use is justified During utilization the teacher should note pupil reactions to the material, giving attention to such items as interest, level of difficulty, vocabulary, provision for individual differences, and appropriateness to the maturity level of the group Following utilization, attention should be given to the types of activity stimulated by the material and to significant outcomes such as concepts, appreciations, or changes in attitude Continuous evaluation of this type leads to more effective utilization and to the development of a collection of instructional resources that have great value in promoting social learning

SELECTION OF MATERIALS

Proper selection of materials must be based upon careful evaluation prior to utilization It is folly to gamble children's time away by using materials whose values and contents are unknown A film, field trip, recording, or book should meet sound criteria before it is used for instructional purposes The criteria commonly used in the selection of various types of materials are discussed in the following pages

PURPOSE The clarification of the purpose for which a film, film strip, recording, or radio program is to be used is a first step in its evaluation Both the purpose for which it has been produced and the specific purpose for which it is to be used should be determined The latter may vary, since different teachers may use the same motion picture for different purposes For example, one teacher used a motion picture on Mexico to give an overview in connection with an initiation of the unit, while another teacher used the same film to summarize key learnings Both knew, however, that the film was designed to portray various aspects of living in Mexico in a broad, general way As a basic guide, then, only those materials that contribute directly and specifically to significant purposes should be selected

VARIETY Variation of materials within limits that avoid confusion and overstimulation promotes interests and stimulates thinking Far too many teachers fall into the rut of selecting one type of resource to the exclusion of most others An important principle to keep in

mind is to select a variety of materials in line with changing needs and purposes so that children learn to use many different resources in problem solving. The teacher's goal is to select the particular aid which best fits a specific purpose at a given time.

If the purpose is to show concretely how something works, a working model should be secured. If a need has arisen to clarify the way in which an activity is carried out by a given group, weaving by Indians, for example, a silent motion picture will portray the action and movement adequately. Such purposes as learning about types of dwellings or homes may be met by using still pictures, which may be projected or unprojected, depending upon their size and whether or not individual or group activity is involved. Sound motion pictures are helpful in giving realistic conceptions of activities in which both sound and motion are important elements. Colored slides are helpful in studying types and colors of clothing and costumes, landscapes, and the arts and crafts of various peoples. Where sound alone is adequate, recordings, the radio, or transcriptions may be used. If the purpose is to see an activity in its natural setting, a field trip may be essential. After the purpose is clearly defined, the problem of selection is well begun.

APPROPRIATENESS TO MATURITY OF CHILDREN The level of difficulty of instructional materials must be appropriate to the maturity of the children who are to use them. References, films, maps, and other resources must be checked to determine concepts involved, skills needed for their effective use, and applicability to problems that the pupils are attempting to solve. Selected materials must be neither too difficult nor too simple if interest is to be held and maximum learning is to be achieved. A range of material wide enough to cover the individual levels of maturity within the class should be chosen.

CONTENT Significance and authenticity of content are essential criteria in the selection of materials. The nature of the content in a given film, film strip, radio program, or recording in large measure determines its potential contribution to the program. Authenticity, clarity of presentation, timeliness, distortion, propaganda, stereotypes of work should be checked. The content should contribute directly to a clearer understanding of problems being considered, and should stimulate critical thinking, not detract from it. While this, of course, depends upon the manner in which a given resource is used, the teacher should be aware of the biases, mood, tone, and purpose of the writer or producer so that attention may be given to these factors during and

after utilization. Children should develop an awareness of bias, propaganda, and prejudice in the materials they use. The teacher's role is to guide children in the development of true impressions and accurate concepts through effective utilization of carefully selected materials.

PHYSICAL QUALITIES The value of maps, motion pictures, or charts is greatly decreased unless physical qualities such as format, printing, sound, photography, and organization are satisfactory. Attractiveness, clearness of presentation, and continuity or sequence of ideas are significant determinants of educational value. Obviously, these criteria should be applied to the care and repair of materials as well as to their selection.

MANUALS The manuals for teachers which accompany many maps, films, film strips, slides, recordings, radio programs, and books should be reviewed critically. Many of them contain helpful suggestions which should be consulted prior to utilization. This is especially important if it is impossible to preview the material before using it in the classroom, although this eventuality should be avoided if at all possible. In appraising manuals, attention should be given to practicality of suggestions, pertinence to the unit of work, desirability in terms of past experiences in the class, and ease of utilization. As with all guides designed for instructional use, adaptation must be made to the needs of the children who are to use the resource. In some instances manuals are provided which have not been tested in actual classroom situations, and their use may create difficulties instead of solving problems. This fact adds to the importance of previewing the resources and making specific plans for their utilization in terms of immediate needs.

TIME, EFFORT, EXPENSE The time, effort, and expense involved in using instructional resources are important considerations. Some field trips involving traveling a great distance from school are highly desirable, but they are unnecessary if other available instructional resources are adequate. On the other hand, a given field trip may be more economical than other resources in terms of time, effort, and expense because of the educational values it possesses. At times a film strip may be more effective than a motion picture, or a set of flat pictures more valuable than a map. Of course, such decisions are relative and must be based upon the facts in a given situation. A basic consideration is the value of the material to the children for whom it is being selected.

RATING DEVICES In many school systems it has been found helpful to organize rating cards or checklists which include criteria such

FILM APPRAISAL FOR PURCHASE-FORM 7
PASADENA CITY SCHOOLS

Title _____	Price _____			
Source _____	Silent Sound Color			
Running time _____				
Rating	Excellent Good Fair Poor			
Remarks (Nature and appropriateness of content, Reactions)				
School _____	Course _____			
Suggested for Grade level _____	Unit _____			
Recommended adding to Library? _____	Date _____			
Signature _____				

(Front Side of Card)

Is the presentation tinged with propaganda? _____ If so, is the propaganda desirable? _____ Undesirable? _____ Directed toward advertising? _____ Directed toward upholding the American form of government? _____

Comments _____

Teaching values	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor	Reject
Reliability	()	()	()	()	()
Appeal to Pupils	()	()	()	()	()
Sustained Interest	()	()	()	()	()
Carry-over	()	()	()	()	()
Tempo	()	()	()	()	()
Continuity	()	()	()	()	()
Technical Quality					
Photography	()	()	()	()	()
Sound	()	()	()	()	()
Color	()	()	()	()	()

(Reverse Side of Card)

as those discussed above. With an objective rating sheet in hand it is much easier to appraise instructional materials. The example on page 198 is illustrative of those used to appraise films. Examples of rating devices that can be used to appraise other types of instructional material are given in later chapters.

EFFECTIVE UTILIZATION

Sound guidelines for using instructional materials are imperative if maximum values are to be achieved. Principles which the teacher can use in guiding the utilization of materials are just as important as the materials themselves. Obviously much harm can be done in terms of social learning if haphazardness and carelessness characterize the use of resources. The same painstaking care that is given to the selection of materials must also be given to their utilization.

Guiding Principles. The following checklist applies to the use of all types of instructional resources. It is based upon an analysis of suggestions made regarding the use of specific types of materials. It is presented in such a manner that it can be used as a checklist before using various materials, thus assuring more effective utilization.

CHECKLIST FOR PLANNING UTILIZATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

A. Purpose

- Is the purpose clear? —How is this resource related to the unit?
- Are good human relations portrayed?
- Is democratic behavior shown?
- How does it fit into problem solving with other resources?
- What questions can be answered?
- What skills, attitudes and appreciations can be improved?
- Does the manual suggest practical and worthwhile purposes?

B. Readiness

- Is the group ready? —What concepts need development?
- What experiences should be recalled and discussed?
- How can it be related to problems in the unit of work?
- What ideas need emphasis?
- What difficulties or understandings need explanation in advance?
- Is a new point of view presented?
- Does the manual suggest other techniques for use in introducing it?

C. During Utilization

- Should children observe? —Take notes? —Raise questions?

- Should supplementary comments be made? Should a break be allowed during utilization for rest, questions, comments?
- Should the resource be used in its entirety without interruption?
- Should the resource be used a second time to emphasize points, clarify questions, and make explanations?
- Should supplementary materials be used with it?
- Does the manual suggest activities for children?

D *Follow-Through*

- Is group discussion sufficient?
- Is group planning needed to explore new questions and problems?
- Can stated questions be answered?
- What conclusions can be made? Should a summary be made?
- Should a short test be given on key ideas?
- Should other resources be consulted to check points at issue?
- Are related activities suggested, such as map making, chart making, reading, committee work, construction, dramatization, processing of materials, other activities?
- Does the manual suggest follow-through activities?

E *Teacher Evaluation*

- Was the resource satisfactory for the group involved?
- How can utilization be improved?
- Should supplementary resources be available prior to, or after, utilization?
- Any special difficulties that should be noted for future reference?
- Does the manual suggest points for evaluation?

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1 Recall vivid learning experiences you had in the elementary school. Can you remember the instructional materials that were a part of them? What other factors were involved?

2 The level of concreteness of materials is one factor to consider in selecting resources for a group. What are some other factors? Would learning in the social studies be increasingly more meaningful if only direct experiences were provided?

3 Discuss the role of children in the classroom when the classroom is set up as a laboratory of learning. Consider planning, care of materials, housekeeping jobs, group morale, concern for others and sharing.

4 In some classrooms a film, film strip, demonstration, or other resource is used merely as a sideshow unrelated to significant purposes of the group. What steps can be taken to prevent this?

5 Visit an audio-visual materials center and examine the types of

resources available Note those that might be useful in a unit you are planning to teach

6 Examine one or more of the guides to free and inexpensive materials listed at the end of this chapter Which materials appear to be related to a unit you are planning? Secure some by writing to the publisher of each item and appraise them in the light of the criteria presented in this chapter

7 Examine the pictures in this chapter critically Are there any changes you would make in some of the displays shown in the pictures if you were making them?

8 Select one instructional resource of your choice and make a tentative plan for using it Use the checklist presented at the end of this chapter as a guide to planning

9 Reread the section on problem solving presented in the chapter preceding this one Note ways in which the instructional resources discussed in this chapter can be used under each step of the problem solving process

10 A noted teacher once said "To know techniques is one thing, to know techniques and to use them in accord with sound principles of teaching is another thing" Discuss this in terms of the principles presented in this chapter Can you summarize your point of view of the place of instructional materials in the social studies program?

REFERENCES

Allen, Jack (Ed.), *The Teacher of the Social Studies* Twenty-third Yearbook National Council for the Social Studies Washington, D.C. National Education Association, 1932 Contains suggestions on types of activities and materials to include in a good program, emphasis is upon the role of the teacher

Clapp, Elsie R., *The Use of Resources in Education* Publication of the John Dewey Society New York Harper & Brothers 1932 Presents a point of view and principles for implementing the use of resources in our schools, good background material

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Materials of Instruction*, Eighth Yearbook Washington, D.C. National Education Association, 1935

—, *Newer Instructional Practices of Promise* Twelfth Yearbook Washington, D.C. National Education Association, 1939, Chaps IV, XI, XIV Although published many years ago, this volume and the one above contain much that can be used today The point of view and the specific suggestions for the use of materials are well worth reading

Gilchrist, Robert (Ed.), *Creating a Good Environment for Learning* Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Washington, D C National Education Association, 1954 Presents broad principles for creating an environment conducive to learning, child development, mental hygiene, and other foundational factors are stressed

National Council for the Social Studies *How To Do It Series* Washington, D C. National Education Association This series contains a variety of 8 page leaflets on the use of films, maps, multiple textbooks, recordings and other instructional materials, helpful to teachers and supervisors

National Society for the Study of Education *The Community School* Fifty second Yearbook Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1953 The development and status of the community school with suggested principles for making every school an integral part of the community it serves, good background reading

Potter, Gladys L., "Selecting and Using Instructional Materials," *The Principal and Curriculum Building* Twentieth Yearbook, California Elementary School Principals Association, Oakland The Association, 1948, pp 100-114 A practical treatment of techniques to use in selecting resources, specific examples are given

Quillen, I James, and Lavone A Hanna, *Education for Social Competence* Chicago Scott, Foresman and Co, 1948, Chap IX Although written for the secondary school teacher, the point of view regarding the use of current materials is basic reading for the elementary school teacher

Wesley, E. B., and M Adams, *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools* Boston D C. Heath & Co, 1946 Chapters XV, XVI, XVII present a well rounded and down to-earth treatment of the use of instructional materials in the social studies

GUIDES TO FREE AND INEXPENSIVE MATERIALS

Information on where to secure free and inexpensive materials is presented in the following references

PERIODICALS

- Pamphlets and Government Publications and 'Sight and Sound in Social Studies' *Social Education* (National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 16 St. NW Washington, D C.)
- Free or Inexpensive, *NEA Journal* (National Education Association, 1201 16 St. NW, Washington, D C.)
- "Educational Aids from Your Government," *School Life* (U S Office of Education, Washington 25, D C.)

"Free and Inexpensive Material," *Booklist* (American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago 11, Ill.)

"News of Latest A-V Materials," *Audio-Visual Guide* (Educational & Recreational Guides, Inc., 1630 Springfield Ave., Maplewood, N.J.)

"Helpful Teaching Materials for You," *The Instructor* (F. A. Owen Pub Co., Danville, N.Y.)

OTHER SOURCES

Educators' Guide to Free Films (Educators' Progress Service, Randolph, Wis.) Published annually, arranged by curricular subjects, gives terms of loans

Educators' Guide to Free Slide Films (Educators' Progress Service, Randolph, Wis.) Published annually, subject listing as above

Elementary Teachers' Guide to Free Curriculum Materials (Educators' Progress Service, Randolph, Wis.) Published annually, indexed list arranged by subject

Free and Inexpensive Learning Material (Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.) Lists free materials and some that must be purchased

Free and Inexpensive Materials on World Affairs, by L. S. Kenworthy (Brooklyn College Brooklyn 10, N.Y.) Includes bibliographies, general materials, films, pictures, resource units, exhibits, film strips, kits, maps, and other aids

Pamphlet Index (Schulte Press, 119 West 23rd Street, New York 11, N.Y.) Published monthly A catalogue of small publications on social affairs—labor, economics, human relations, social studies, international problems

Selected United States Government Publications (Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.) A leaflet describing inexpensive government publications, many are useful in the social studies Get on the mailing list by writing the address as shown

Vertical File Service (H. W. Wilson Company, 950-72 University Avenue, New York 52, N.Y.) Published monthly Booklets, pamphlets, leaflets, mimeographed materials arranged alphabetically by subject.

STUDYING THE COMMUNITY AND USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The good elementary school is a community school. This is so because the relationships between school and community determine to a great extent the quality of the educational program. When the elementary school is conceived and operated as a community school the finest kind of school-community relationships are possible. As a result, both the child's learning and the life of the community are improved.

The community is the setting in which the child lives and learns; in it he develops the meanings and concepts essential to an understanding of group living; in it he experiences life in a democracy. The experiences he has in church, stores, theaters, home, neighborhood, and school become his background of meanings for study, thought, and expression. Out of all these experiences in the community come the backgrounds for developing an understanding of human relationships and processes of living.

The local community is the maturing child's laboratory for learning about man's way of living. In the community the child can explore and study in a firsthand way the basic social functions of group living. The child can develop increasingly deeper insight into social functions by experiencing them directly in his daily living and, under teacher guidance, by comparing ways of living in his community with those in other communities. As he matures he can use ideas gained about social functions in American communities and note likenesses and differences in cultures in other parts of the world. The richer the experiences the child has in his community, the greater will be his comprehension of ways of living elsewhere.

Some of the richest instructional resources for the social studies

can be found in the local community.¹ For example, field trips can be taken to an airport, dairy farm, newspaper, or to other places being studied. Resource visitors can be invited to discuss topics, give demonstrations, and share materials. Local radio and television programs, published materials, and audio-visual materials can be used as various needs arise. Individuals can be interviewed in connection with specific problems in the social studies. Children can cooperate in local service projects and thus become participants in community activities. The child's own daily experiences in the community are also a resource which can be used to enrich discussions and to promote sharing of ideas.

STUDYING THE COMMUNITY

The first step the teacher should take in planning for the use of community resources is to make a community survey. Such a survey may be brief and related specifically to educational resources, or it may be a detailed analysis of background conditions, depending, of course, on whether or not time and personnel permit.

The checklist below is illustrative of items to note in a relatively simple survey of community resources that can be carried out by the teacher alone. The checklist has been used successfully by many teachers to note resources to use in units of work. The list of resources under each item will grow as the teacher gains experience in the community and continues to search for educational resources.

CHECKLIST FOR STUDYING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

- 1 Field (or study) trips (industries, museums, etc.)
- 2 Resource visitors (come to your class—panel or individuals)
- 3 Radio and television (travel programs, historical plays)
- 4 Published materials (newspapers, libraries, chamber of commerce bulletins)
- 5 Persons to interview (travelers, policemen)

¹ For a detailed analysis of community resources see Edward G. Olsen, et al., *School and Community* (2nd ed.) New York: Prentice Hall Inc., 1954 and Edward G. Olsen (Ed.), *School and Community Programs* New York: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1949.

- 6 Welfare and service organizations (Red Cross, service clubs) _____
- 7 Service projects (relief programs, clean up) _____
- 8 Possible field studies (housing, safety) _____
- 9 Visual resources (pictures, realia) _____
- 10 Local current events (campaigns, drives) _____
- 11 Resources within the school (collections of materials, teachers who have traveled) _____
- 12 Community recreational resources (parks, camping facilities) _____
- 13 Population resources (individuals, folk festivals) _____
- 14 Others _____

A more detailed community study should include background factors and conditions.² An analysis of detailed surveys indicates that the following topics are usually included

History of the community	Natural resources
Population	Health and safety
Home and family life	Recreational opportunities
Government	Conservation
Organized group life	Industry and commerce
Communication and transportation	Art, music, and literature
Public and private welfare agencies	Educational opportunities

After the study has been completed, the following types of resources should be noted and used by teachers

Field trips	Service activities
Resource visitors	Field studies
Persons to interview	Children's surveys
Published materials	Recreational facilities
Audio-visual materials	Cooperating agencies

² See *Open op cit*



San Diego County

The world of work, science in industry, processing of materials, wise use of resources . . . these and other concepts can be introduced to children through the use of community resources.

In making a survey many sources of information are available. The following are examples:

Teachers
Old-timers
County agricultural agents
Chamber of Commerce
4-H Club leaders
Tourist maps
Census reports
Parents
Courthouse records
Newspaper files
City directory
Weather reports

Local maps
School records
Library files
Businessmen
Government officials
Social workers
Community workers
School officials
Industrial reports
Special editions of local news-
papers
Pamphlets from agencies

TECHNIQUES FOR STUDYING THE COMMUNITY

Information about the community may be secured by means of individual or group interviews, observation, analysis of documents, field work, participation in community groups, questionnaires, and informal discussion. The techniques to be used should be selected with reference to information needed, time and resources available, extent of need for different types of data, access to specialized assistance, and funds and clerical help available. For example, many groups have not been able to do extensive field work because of limited staff and lack of funds, but all can use individual and group interviews. In general, however, all of the foregoing techniques should be used, the extent to which each is used will vary with local needs and conditions.

INTERVIEW By interviewing key individuals, or carefully selected groups of individuals, much data can be secured quickly and efficiently. Both individual and small group interviews are helpful in determining the value of community resources, exploring controversial issues, getting leads to valuable documents, determining attitudes, securing unpublished information, and exploring the possibilities of a more complete survey of the community. In both individual and group interviews essential principles of procedure include the establishment and maintenance of rapport and the skillful yet unobtrusive guiding of the conversation or discussion. Although for general purposes the group interview is probably more promising and effective than the individual interview, both have a place in a well planned community study.

OBSERVATION Observation is a helpful device for noting industries, types of residences, housing conditions, safety hazards, types of stores, condition of parks and playgrounds, the location of trailer camps, and so forth. Directed observation during tours planned for the study of specific factors will yield much information. Data on changing conditions and new developments can be gathered by a continuing process of incidental observation. Both directed and incidental observation should be used as part of a larger plan and for specifically defined purposes. Awareness of and alertness to information needed in the complete study are essential for effective observation, whether it be incidental or directed.

DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS Published materials which yield valuable data are readily available for survey use. Efforts should be made

to discover those available in a given community because of the rich store of material they contain. Especially helpful are the following:

Census Reports In 400 depositories and libraries throughout the country or from Bureau of Census Washington D.C. Superintendent of Documents Government Printing Office (See the public library)

Local newspapers and magazines

Local libraries—files of community material articles pamphlets studies

Bulletins of state governmental agencies

Bulletins of local governmental agencies

Reports of the Chamber of Commerce business groups labor groups

Pamphlets from museums

Reports of social service agencies

Reports of planning commissions and recreation groups

School records

Community surveys and studies done by local groups

Reports of civic associations historical and scientific societies service clubs churches home bureaus farm bureaus women's organizations minority group associations patriotic associations

Studies made by colleges and universities

In analyzing published materials available in a given community efforts should be made to organize the material in a manner that will promote classroom use. This may be done by (a) organizing a handbook of community materials and resources (b) incorporating the material and selected references into units of work (c) including materials and references in the courses of study (d) preparing a special series of community life bulletins (e) developing a reference volume on community information for school use and (f) preparing kits containing materials that teachers can use in the classroom. In general the material will be used most effectively if it is organized in a form in which its use is clearly indicated in units of work in courses of study or in teaching kits for example.

QUESTIONNAIRES Although the use of questionnaires is fraught with many dangers and limitations they are helpful in securing information on opinions, attitudes problems needs and for collecting certain types of data that may be gathered in a checklist form. For example opinions on school problems, attitudes toward camping experiences the importance of selected school-community problems

and information about hobbies, interests, and use of community facilities may be sampled by questionnaires. Questionnaires dealing with such topics should be impersonal, simple, and arranged in a yes-no checklist, multiple choice, or short answer form. Skillfully used, they are great time savers, poorly prepared and unwise used, they are valueless. As a general rule, questionnaires should be used only when time is of the essence and the data are not otherwise available.

ORGANIZING A SURVEY GROUP Careful planning and organization are needed if it is decided to organize a group to carry out a community survey.³ The survey group should be selected carefully to assure balance of personnel, wide participation, and complete coverage of essential material. A chairman is necessary to coordinate the efforts of the group. A curriculum expert, a librarian, an audio-visual specialist, subject matter specialists, principals, and supervisors have many contributions to make. If they are available, much help may also be secured by consulting sociologists, psychologists, and geographer-geologists. But the most valuable single person is the classroom teacher himself, who in the course of the survey discovers ways and means of improving the curriculum of the children with whom he is working. The teacher's problems and concerns are an excellent starting point, and may well be used as leads to plan the survey, to secure consultants, and to organize the material. Teachers of all levels and from different areas of specialization, such as science, social studies, art, and music, should be included. Finally, the group should organize itself into working committees to collect and organize material on the topics and problems selected for study.

Information about the community should be gathered and compiled in a manner that will facilitate the drawing of implications for the curriculum. The group making the survey should plan carefully the topics to be included, the material needed, and the manner of reporting—all with a view to increasing the use of the survey for curriculum improvement. The importance of such planning is underlined by the fact that many surveys have been made and then filed away because implications for the curriculum were vague and difficult to derive. For some phases of the study, pupils may prove to be quite helpful.⁴ For example, pupils can study and report safety factors, health needs, gardening possibilities, possible field trips, housing construction, and similar activities. Obviously, much guidance and planning are essential to give direction to the efforts of students and to

³ See Olsen, *op. cit.*

⁴ Paul Hanna, *Youth Sees the Community* New York: Appleton-Century 1936.

prevent exaggeration, boasting, overemphasis, and neglect of larger problems. All of this does not imply that a large, complex group is needed to undertake a community study. In fact, a most profitable study may be done by the teacher alone, or by the staff of a small elementary school.

USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

After a study of the community has been completed, available resources should be used to enrich the curriculum. All resources should be used by the teacher in accordance with sound principles of procedure if maximum learnings are to be achieved. Pre planning, clarification of purposes, teacher-pupil planning, sound guidance during use of resources, and teacher-pupil evaluation are essential general considerations. To achieve greatest efficiency, it is necessary to consider specifically each type of resource and the problems incident to its use. In the remainder of this chapter attention is given to daily experiences, field trips, resource persons, interviewing resource persons, field studies, and service projects.

DAILY EXPERIENCES The day-by-day experiences of children in the community constitute one of the most valuable community resources. As children go about the community, see buildings under construction, watch changes in the season, see workers in action, observe holidays and celebrations, participate in observances and commemorations, enjoy radio and television, hear and discuss current events, buy articles in stores, utilize the transportation system, attend churches, and engage in a host of other community activities, they inevitably learn very much and also are stimulated to raise questions. Alert teachers capitalize upon these experiences and use them to the fullest in the social studies. Questions are considered in discussion, current events of significance to the group are considered, ways to utilize community services and related responsibilities are discussed, comparisons are made between the child's experiences in his community and the experiences of others in different communities, misconceptions are clarified, and attention is given to an ever increasing understanding of the importance of cooperation, responsibility, and concern for others in every facet of community living.

In order to utilize daily experiences of children in the community, the teacher must be a persistent student of children's activities in the community. What games and activities do they enjoy after school? What are their television and motion picture preferences? Do they

TUNA FISHING



The human activities that children experience in their community provide opportunities to extend and enrich learning in the social studies. What activities in your community should be made a part of the instructional program?

utilize library and parl facilities? Do they participate in scouting activities? Is there a Y program? What problems are of concern to them as children? What questions do they have? Which aspects of community life are directly related to the social studies? By observing children in the community discussing children's activities with others and having planned classroom discussions with children answers to the foregoing questions can be secured and used to enrich children's learning in school and living in the community.

FIELD TRIPS Field trips planned to solve needs and problems that arise in the social studies make many contributions to social learning. Concepts and understandings may be developed, extended and clarified. Specific answers to questions may be secured. Increased appreciation of the relationship between units being studied in school and



Alameda County

How do cows get their food? Who feeds them? When do they eat? Can we see them eat? These and other questions can be answered by a carefully planned study trip.

the outside world of reality is possible Improved attitudes may result as children come face to face with persons and objects encountered on an excursion Growth in skills of observation, recording, questioning, and interviewing is possible Critical thinking is sharpened as children check data gleaned from excursions with material presented in texts and pamphlets Firsthand knowledge of the operation of basic social functions is gained as transportation, communication, production, conservation, and recreation are studied in operation From the child's point of view, field trips provide much practical and concrete material for the solution of problems in the social studies⁵

Many different types of field trips are taken in live, dynamic social studies programs They may be completed within a class period, a full day, or a period of several days At times they may be taken with the child's parents over the week end Children themselves may go on hikes to find the solutions to problems that have arisen The whole class or a selected group may be involved

There are many opportunities in the social studies for the use of field trips The following suggestive list illustrates the possibilities discovered by a group of teachers in a small elementary school Several of them later were incorporated in units of work in the program This is a significant point, as excursions are of greatest value when planned as an on-going part of problem-solving experiences in the unit of work.

FIELD TRIPS IN THE COMMUNITY

Aquarium	Firehouse	Petroleum company
Airport	Forest service	Plant nursery
Art gallery	Historic homes	Police station
Bakery	Housing construction	Post office
Bottling works	Lake	Railroad station
Broadcasting station	Library	River
Cannery	Lumber mill	Road construction
Courthouse	Mission	Sawmill
Dairy	Museum	Shipyard
Docks	Newspapers	Stores
Factories	Observatory	Telephone exchange
Farms	Parks	Zoo

⁵ See Olsen, *op. cit.*, and Henry C. Ayteo "The Excursion in Social Education," *Aid o-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*, Eighteenth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1947, pp. 33-52.

Some of the most valuable field trips are informal walks that can be taken in the immediate neighborhood. Examples include short walks to see a house being built, changes in the season, operation of a ditch digging machine, a special garden, soil erosion, a collection of pictures and objects, or a modern bakery. Or children may take a short walking trip to gather specimens, see an old building, study architectural changes in the neighborhood, visit an expert to secure answers to questions, study safety problems and the like. Walking trips such as these are informal and easy to plan, require a minimum of organization, save time, and make children more critical observers of the immediate environment. They can be used as needed to secure information needed in problem solving, they also provide excellent readiness for longer, more involved field trips. The mistake should never be made of overlooking walking trips in the neighborhood in favor of extensively planned field trips. There is a place for both, of course, and alert teachers plan accordingly in terms of the specific questions and problems that arise in the unit of work.

Each teacher should study his community to determine the field trips that will contribute to the experiences he is planning in the social studies. In many school systems it has been found helpful to prepare a handbook for the use of excursions. In it should be recorded the field trips appropriate to units of work in the social studies as well as in other areas of the curriculum. Essential items regarding each trip are:

- 1 Name, telephone number and address of the person to contact.
- 2 Possible contribution to the unit—concepts, information and so forth.
- 3 Ages for which it is appropriate.
- 4 Size of group that may be accommodated.
- 5 Safety factors.
- 6 Time, distance, mode of travel, route to follow.
- 7 Best time to visit, length of visit.
- 8 Eating facilities.
- 9 Toilet facilities.
- 10 What to see along the way.
- 11 Resource materials available.
- 12 Special notes or suggestions.

A handbook facilitates the use of excursions and saves time for the persons with whom trips are planned, as well as for the teacher.

PLANNING FIELD TRIPS The one great differentiating feature between a field trip and just going somewhere is that a real educational purpose exists for the field trip. Careful planning is essential in



Burbank

Are there any restored buildings in your community that can be visited? What specific information and concepts should children gain from such visits?

order to assure the achievement of learnings which will be of greatest value to the children.

Group planning through discussion is one of the most effective techniques that can be used. Attention should be given to the purpose of the trip, ways to record information, safety precautions, time schedule, travel arrangements, wearing apparel, standards of behavior and procedures to follow during the visit.

Health and safety precautions should be given thorough consideration. Rules for crossing the street, staying with the group, and general safety should be discussed. Hazards with reference to machinery, traffic, rivers, lakes and similar items should be noted. Each child should know what to do in case of an emergency on the bus or at the place to be visited.

Standards of courtesy and protection of property should be dis-

cussed Each child has a responsibility to be courteous to the bus driver, the manager of the place being visited and the guide Respect for property both on the bus and at the location of the visit should be uppermost in mind Reasons for not marking or defacing property should be discussed Children should be urged to thank the individuals who made the trip possible before they return home

The importance of cooperating with the bus driver should be brought out in a meaningful way to each child For example, if the children are fairly quiet the bus driver will be able to hear signals and sirens, and thus handle the bus in a safe manner Each child should also understand that he must stay in his seat so that the bus driver can have a full view at all times and so that no accident will occur if a quick stop is necessary

Any parents who accompany the group on the trip should understand the major purposes to be achieved Specific instructions should be given them regarding ways they are to help For example, if they are responsible for a group of eight children they should learn the names of the children in their group and carry out specific directions regarding standards and regulations that have been set up The parents should be introduced to the children for whom they are responsible, and the children should understand how they are to help on the trip

If a bus is to be used for transportation, plans should be made for appropriate activities during the ride from the school to the destination Quiet games which are appropriate include finding pictures on signs related to topics being studied in school, finding certain letters on signs, counting certain types of buildings, and seeing interesting bridges, factories, or other objects along the way Those who sit next to the windows on the outgoing trip should trade places on the return trip with children who have had aisle seats, so that everyone will have an opportunity to observe important places along the way

It is important for the teacher to make plans for a last minute check just before the trip begins The physical condition of each child should be noted and children who are ill should be left with the school nurse or the principal Each child should have a slip signed by his parents granting permission to take the trip Dress and appearance should be noted and children wearing a flowing scarf or similar item that might get caught in machinery should be requested not to wear it at the place of the visit Individual and group assignments should be clarified Essentials of good behavior and safety should be reviewed Provision should be made for each child to get a drink and go to the toilet just before the trip begins

Adequate provision should be made for any children who for one reason or another cannot go on the field trip. The principal should have a list of all children who are not scheduled to go and a note on plans that have been made for them—such as working in another teacher's room or working in the library.

The teacher's role at the place of the visit is that of a general supervisor. Explanations should be made as needed, questions should be raised when something is not clear to the group, difficult terms should be explained, behavior problems should be met as they arise, and contact should be kept with all children. Since the group is representing the school, attention should be given as needed to any boisterousness, misconduct, or carelessness. Directions should be given as needed to any parents who are assisting with the supervision of the group. The group should be kept together and the time schedule should be maintained. Any signs of fatigue or emotional disturbance should be noted and steps should be taken to alleviate them. Before leaving the place of the visit, a check should be made to see that no one has left anything, and the roll should be double checked to make certain that no child has been left behind. Thanks should be expressed to everyone who assisted with the field trip.

It is sound procedure to summarize specific plans on charts, on the chalkboard, or on duplicated sheets of paper so that important points are clear to each member of the group. Charts 1 and 2 are illustrative of the planning done by a Grade I group who took a short walk to a grocery store.

LET'S FIND OUT

- 1 Where are vegetables kept?
- 2 How is meat kept fresh?
- 3 What is in the storeroom?
- 4 Who keeps the shelves full?

Chart 1

OUR WALK TO THE STORE

- 1 Stay together
- 2 Watch where you walk.
- 3 Ask questions in turn.
- 4 Listen to the answers.

Chart 2

After their walk to the store, the children engaged in dramatic play and developed the needs for materials shown in Chart 3, thus putting to use the information secured from the field trip.

WE NEED FOR OUR PLAY

A grocery store	Counters
Tables	Delivery trucks
Cash register	Shopping bags
Vegetable stand	An ice box

Chart 3

An advanced type of planning for a field trip to an airport is illustrated in Charts 4, 5, and 6, which were developed by a Grade VI group. The charts were made by the members of the class with the teacher serving as discussion leader and a child as the recorder. The class was divided into four committees, each committee being responsible for six of the questions in Chart 6.

A SAFE TRIP

- 1 Stay in your group
- 2 Keep in line
- 3 Listen to directions
- 4 Keep moving with the class
- 5 Touch only those things suggested by the guide
- 6 Bring a raincoat.

THINGS WE WANT TO SEE

- 1 Administration building
- 2 Control tower
- 3 Planes landing and taking off
- 4 Runways beacons and wind sock
- 5 Food preparation center
- 6 Different types of planes
- 7 Weather bureau
- 8 Teletype machines
- 9 Maintenance shops
- 10 Service trucks
- 11 Ticket and baggage office
- 12 Parts of plane
- 13 How planes are repaired

Chart 4

Chart 5

QUESTIONS WE WANT TO ANSWER

1. How many passengers does a DC-6 carry? DC-7? DC-8?
2. What airlines use the airport?
3. How many planes come in to the airport each day?
4. How high off the ground is the cockpit where the pilots sit?
5. How long are the runways at the airport?
6. How many runways at the airport?
7. At what altitude does a westbound plane travel? Eastbound? Northbound? Southbound?
8. What kinds of cargo are the planes carrying?
9. From where do the planes come?
10. How many men work in the control tower?
11. What do these men do?
12. What is a log?
13. How many instruments does the plane have on the control board?
14. What do these instruments tell the pilot?
15. How many pounds of baggage is one passenger allowed?
16. Where does the crew put the gasoline in the airplane?
17. What is the airfield made of?
18. How long does it take a pilot to get a commercial license?
19. What does one have to study in order to become a pilot?
20. How many seats in an airplane?
21. How is the cargo held steady in an airplane?
22. Where are the stewardess' quarters?
23. How does she prepare the food for the passengers?
24. How many hours does it take to fly from Oakland to Los Angeles? New York? Chicago? Portland? Paris?

Chart 6

Many teachers have found it helpful to use a checklist in order to assure effective planning of field trips. The following checklist was developed by teachers in a curriculum workshop.

GUIDE FOR THE PLANNING OF FIELD TRIPS

First Considerations

- Is it the best procedure for the purposes of the group?
- Is this experience appropriate for the children?
- Have adequate backgrounds, needs, and purposes been developed?
- Are related materials available—films, books, pictures?

- Are there profitable follow-up activities?
- Are physical conditions satisfactory—weather, safety, conditions in places to be visited?
- Will it strengthen the school community relations?
- Others _____

Preliminary Arrangements

- Has administrative approval been given?
- Has the teacher made a preliminary visit?
- Has the approval of parents been secured?
- What number may be adequately accommodated?
- Are eating and toilet arrangements satisfactory?
- Has the time schedule been prepared?
- Has the guide been advised on problems, needs, and maturity of the group?
- Have travel arrangements and expenses been arranged?
- Are assistants needed to help supervise the group?
- Has a list been made of the names, telephone numbers, and addresses of those children who are going?
- Others _____

Teacher-Pupil Planning

- Are questions prepared and understood?
- Are recording procedures and assignments clear?
- Are reporting procedures and assignments clear?
- Have behavior standards been developed?
- Have safety precautions been considered?
- Have the time schedule, travel arrangements and expenses been clarified?
- Have significant side interests been noted?
- Has attention been given to adequacy of dress?
- Are monitorial assignments clear?
- Others _____

Follow-Up Plans

- Do next experiences follow naturally?
- What findings are to be reported?
- What summaries and records should be made?
- Is attention given to the development of charts, maps, diagrams, murals, models, scrapbooks, construction, dramatic play, and floor layouts?
- Are assembly programs, newspaper articles, exhibits, or displays appropriate?
- May findings be shared with other classes?

- _____ Are procedures in mind to discover and clarify misconceptions?
- _____ Are interesting sidelights to be considered?
- _____ Are letters of appreciation and samples of follow up work to be sent?
- _____ How is behavior of the children to be evaluated?
- _____ How are recording and reporting procedures to be evaluated?
- Others _____

RESOURCE VISITORS Resource visitors can make many realistic contributions to the social studies program. Community studies are enriched when firemen, policemen, newspapermen, and other workers meet with the class to discuss needs, problems and questions that have arisen. In units on Indians, Life in South America, and Life in China much help can be secured from individuals who are natives of the culture or who have made firsthand visits to the culture. Needs and problems which arise in units on Industrial America, Aviation, Transportation, Lumbering, and Marketing may profitably draw upon individuals who are well acquainted with them. The showing of realia, pictures, slides, and bulletins along with the discussion enhances the contributions of resource visitors.

A suggestive list of resource visitors compiled by one group of teachers in a social studies workshop included

Airport employees	Ministers
Authors	Musicians
Businessmen	Newspapermen
City officials	Nurserymen
Consuls of foreign nations	Old time residents
Dairymen	Policemen
Ex servicemen	Professional men—doctors lawyers, dentists, teachers
Farmers	Representatives of service organizations
Fellow teachers	School administrators
Firemen	Ship workers
Foreign students	Social workers
Forest rangers	Soil conservationists
Gardeners	Store clerks
House builders	Traffic safety specialists
Industrial workers	Travelers
Leaders of youth organizations	
Librarians	
Merchants	

A sound procedure is to organize a file of resource persons who can make valuable contributions to the social studies program. A

simple card system can be used by noting the following information on cards 3 x 5 inches

Contribution	_____
Name	Telephone
Hours available	_____
Will come to school?	_____
Children may visit at home or office	_____
Comments	_____

In building up a file of resource visitors it is wise to interview fellow teachers and other school workers to determine which individuals can make a real contribution. It is not wise to send out random questionnaires because it is possible that individuals who cannot make the kind of contribution that is needed by the children in the class may volunteer. A serious public relations problem may thus be created.

Careful timing and planning are needed to secure maximum benefits from resource visitors. As with the field trip visitors should be invited when they can contribute to on going class activities and when fruitful follow up activities may make use of their special contributions. The following guidelines are helpful.⁶

- 1 Through group discussion determine whether or not the use of the visitor is the best way to secure required information on existing needs and problems
- 2 Clarify and list the specific needs and questions on which help is desired
- 3 Select a resource person who can make a rich contribution.
- 4 Plan with the visitor giving attention to needs and questions, timing, interests and age level of group. Give special attention to vocabulary and illustrative materials that may be used
- 5 Make plans with the children for receiving the visitor, introductions, expression of appreciation, behavior standards and recording procedures
- 6 Both the teacher and children should be ready to raise questions and state problems

⁶ See Olsen, *op. cit.*, pp. 128-136

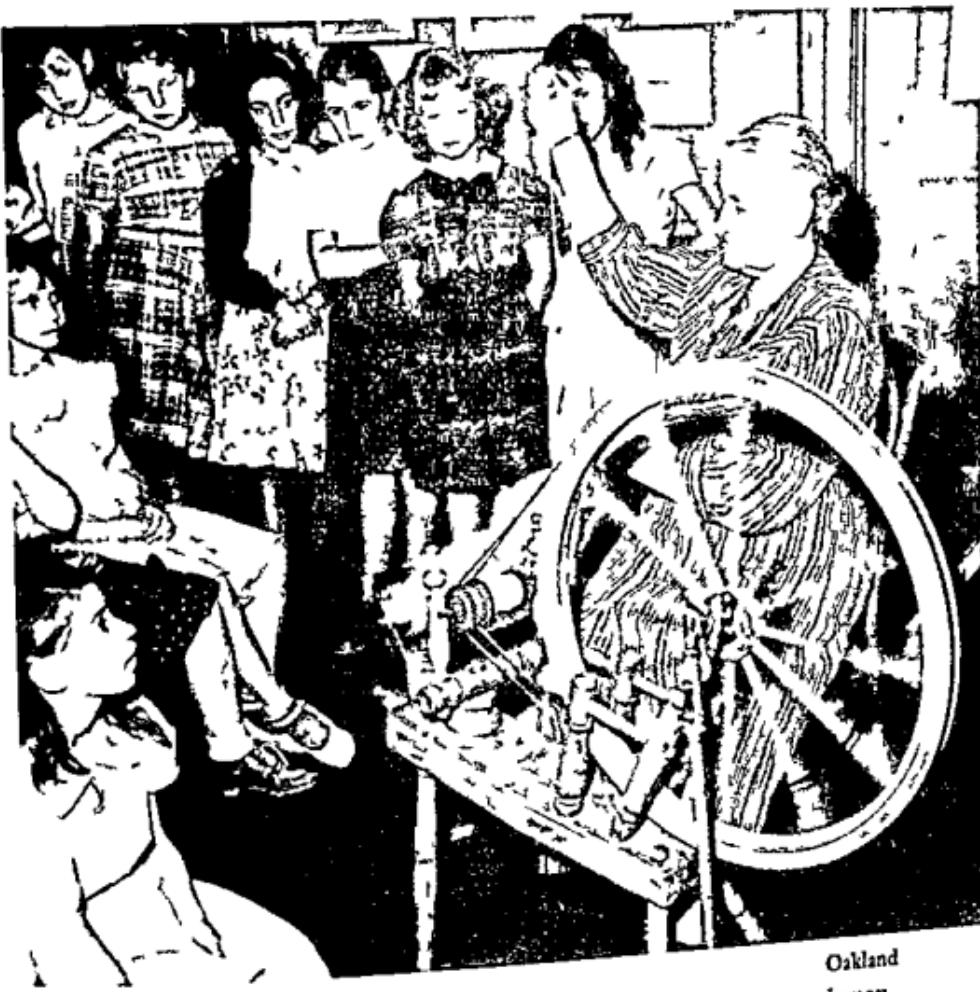
- 7 The teacher should guide the discussion and stimulate group thinking as needed
- 8 Use the information to solve problems and to further expression through reporting, art, writing, dramatization, and so forth
- 9 Evaluate the effectiveness of the use made of the information secured
- 10 Write a letter of appreciation including (if possible) material showing how the contribution was used
- 11 Continue the unit, moving on to new needs and problems that have arisen

INTERVIEWING RESOURCE PERSONS An interview is a desirable procedure to use when it is impractical for a resource person to come to school, essential materials must be kept on the job, and it is more beneficial to see the person in a working situation. Interviews may be conducted by an individual pupil or by a small group. In making plans for them, attention should be given to the same type of planning carried out for the use of resource visitors. In addition, attention must be given to good interviewing technique. The following points illustrate the standards that can be set up through cooperative group planning.

- 1 Introduce yourself
- 2 State questions clearly
- 3 Listen attentively
- 4 Let the other person talk.
- 5 Ask questions on special points
- 6 Take notes on hard points
- 7 Don't waste time
- 8 Express thanks when finished

FIELD STUDIES BY CHILDREN Units in the social studies present many needs and problems that can be solved by means of simple field studies carried out by the children themselves. Illustrative examples include studies on housing construction, farming, dairying, transportation services, communication facilities, industries, markets, local government, health services, safety hazards, natural resources, communications, art and music, stories about our town, and contributions of various nationalities. Field studies may be long, intensive studies or short reports, depending upon the problems and purposes at hand.¹ They may involve a single technique, such as interviewing, or include several procedures, such as trips, observation, library research, confer-

¹ For good illustrations, see Villa B. Smith "A Field Study from the Terminal Tower in Cleveland," *Aid to Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies*, pp. 53-60, and Paul Hanna *op. cit.*



Oakland

Resource visitors add much to the realism of various units by giving demonstrations and sharing experiences with the group. Here Mrs. Necoline Damas demonstrates spinning.

ences, analyses of local bulletins, questionnaires, and interviews. The value to the children, in light of their needs and problems, determines the scope and extent of a field study.

The use of field studies helps to develop many different insights, appreciations, and skills related to study techniques and problem solving. Increased knowledge about interdependence of people, social interaction, social functions and citizenship as dynamic factors in community living may be developed. The first ideas about the community gained by children in an incidental, unorganized manner may be clarified, extended, and sharpened as a result of a field study.

In preparing for the field study, guidelines should be established to direct the studying and planning of the group. In general it is sound procedure to start with specific questions and problems raised by the group. For example, one class set up the following list of questions for use in interviewing resource persons in connection with a study of the development of their community:

When was our town started?

Where were the first buildings located?

Where was the first post office?

Are any of the first houses still standing?

How did the people here travel in the early days?

What contributions did early settlers make to the development of our town?

A successful field study made by children depends upon several factors. The teacher should know the community thoroughly so that appropriate guidance may be given. Committees and individuals should be helped to understand the techniques to be used, get acquainted with the sources of data, and work tactfully and efficiently as they contact individuals and groups in the community. Frequent reports to the class should be made, with ample time for replanning, discussion, and synthesis of material.

A word of caution is needed apropos of surveys conducted by school children. Studies of topics and problems that are controversial to the point of causing intense feeling and reaction belong in the hands of more experienced individuals. Irreparable damage may be done if a study of highly controversial issues is undertaken by children. Intense intercultural conflicts and certain minority group problems, for example, should be avoided. This is not meant to imply that no controversial issues should be studied, rather, sound guidance can lead children to study problems that they can handle without jeopardizing the welfare of any group in the community, and that are within the capacities of the group.

The findings of a community study should be shared with other classes and with groups in the community. Exhibits, newspaper releases, summaries, radio broadcasts, school assemblies, evening programs, talks to local clubs and service groups, panel discussions, debates, and dramatization have been used effectively in many communities. Such projects give added significance to a survey, provide opportunities for children to use and develop important skills, bring school and

community closer together, and frequently result in the improvement of community living*.

An excellent key stone to a survey is community and school action. A question that should be constantly in mind is How can the findings of our study be used in the community? The answer may be found in projects such as clean up drives developing nature trails improving safety regulations planting trees and shrubs planning a children's museum or making reports to appropriate agencies.

COMMUNITY SERVICE

Richer social learnings for children are made possible when a two-way relationship exists between the school and the community. The school should receive much aid from the community and it should render service to the community through educational projects. Merely permitting the use of the school building for various community meetings is not enough. Nor is teacher participation in local clubs and enterprises an adequate discharge of community responsibility. Although both of the foregoing are important maximum educational benefits and optimum school community relationships will not be achieved unless children themselves engage in community service projects. Many of them can be organized within the social studies program.

There are many types of service projects that children may undertake. The following are illustrative of projects that have been carried out successfully in many different school systems.

Clean up drives	Safety campaigns
Clothing drives	Gift boxes
Paper drives	Junior Red Cross work
Book and magazine drives	Various relief drives
Making toys for others	Bicycle safety
Welfare campaigns	City beautification
Conservation projects	Making items for shut ins
Gardening	

By engaging in service projects children gain increased insight into community needs cooperative planning group processes and the significance of service to others. Their work in the social studies should be vitalized and made more meaningful as a result of community service activities. Increased use of community facilities and

* Paul Hanna *op. cit.*

services should be stimulated, and closer bonds between school and community should result.

Experience with community service activities in many different school systems has highlighted the importance of selecting projects with great care. There is no time or place in the elementary curriculum for projects that do not meet the following criteria:⁹

Does the project have educative value for children?

Is it lawful to use boys and girls for this enterprise?

Does the enterprise meet an immediate community need?

Are there other existing needs that are more important at the present time?

Is there any other agency or organization that could render this service more efficiently?

Is the project too expensive in terms of time, money, equipment, and personnel?

Is the project well planned and likely to succeed?

Is the necessary leadership available for adequately supervising the children's services?

Will this project cause undue hardship on children, teachers, administrators, or other school groups?

Does this project help the school fulfill its long-range educational program?

The same care should be exercised in planning service activities as in developing other educational enterprises. The contribution of the activity to education should be clear in the teacher's mind. The children should clearly understand the purposes of the project, and their role in it.

WORKING WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS

In most communities there are local chapters of various organizations designed especially to promote the welfare of boys and girls. Their impact upon the lives of children in improving character and in personality development has been demonstrated time and time again. The programs offered by such organizations as the American Junior Red Cross, Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, the National Recreation Association, and the American Camping Association should be studied carefully and used to supplement social studies experiences.

An excellent example of ways in which activities of these organ-

⁹ U. S. Office of Education, *The Schools and Community Organization, Education and National Defense Series*, Pamphlet No. 5. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1944.

izations are related to the social studies is the international correspondence program of the Junior Red Cross.¹⁰ Other resources available from Junior Red Cross centers include first aid materials, articles in *Junior Red Cross News* on peoples and places throughout the world, participation in the gift box program and the international art and music program, conservation of natural resources and safety education materials. By checking with officials of the different organizations, or consulting bulletins that they publish, many activities related to the social studies may be discovered and utilized.

EXPANDING CONCEPTS OF COMMUNITY

From the child's point of view, the community may be the place where "we live," "we buy stuff we need," or "we go to school and church." It may even be "our city with all the stores, schools, churches, shows, depots, streetcars, and other things." Or it may be "the place where a lot of people live." Concepts will vary greatly, depending upon the guidance given by the teacher and the maturity of the child.

As the child matures, his concept of community should develop to include increasingly broader and deeper understandings. At first the community may be viewed as his section of town, later the entire town or city may be seen as a unit of organized living, later the state, a region, or nation may be visualized as larger units in which people with common purposes and aspirations are working and sharing, finally a world community of people working to achieve equality and peace should be envisioned as the keystone to the community idea. How wonderful it will be when people everywhere come to a realization that their immediate community is part and parcel of the world community! Experiences in the social studies should make rich contributions towards such an understanding!

QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1 Do a brief survey of the resources in the community in which you are now living, use the checklist on pp 205-206. Fill in the spaces provided in the checklist by noting resources you can use in a unit of work of your choice.

2 In cooperation with fellow students, or teachers, undertake a survey of factors and conditions in your community, using the list of topics suggested on page 206. Which of your findings are most useful in

¹⁰ International School Correspondence Program American Red Cross Leaflet 1441 Washington D.C. The American Red Cross July 1955

the social studies? Which are most useful in other areas of the curriculum? Which sources of information did you find to be most helpful?

3 Which daily experiences of children of the age you plan to teach, or are now teaching, do you believe to be most useful in the social studies? Which are directly related to a unit of work you plan to teach?

4 Make a brief plan for a short walking trip that might be taken by a group of children in your community. Make a plan for a major field trip that might be taken. Use the planning checklist on pp. 220-221.

5 If you are not now teaching, arrange to accompany a group of children on a field trip. Sit in on the teacher-pupil planning and note the role of the teacher and children's contributions. During the trip note the reactions of the children, the role of the teacher, the role of the guide and parents, and the contribution of any other persons. Sit in on the follow up discussion and observe subsequent activities growing out of the trip. Summarize practical techniques derived from the experience.

6 Make a brief plan for the use of a resource person in a unit of your choice. Outline specific contributions that the resource person can make.

7 Is there a field study or service project that children might undertake in your community? Does it meet the criteria suggested on page 228? How might it be made a part of a unit of work in the social studies?

8 Obtain and examine bulletins on children's activities available from the local Junior Red Cross chapter. Which activities might you use in connection with the social studies?

9 Discuss ways in which teachers in the elementary school can contribute to the maturing child's concept of community, beginning with the immediate neighborhood and extending outward.

REFERENCES

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National Society for the Study of Education *The Community School* Fifty-second Yearbook Part II Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1953 An account of the development and present status of the community school with suggestions for improving school-community relations

Olsen, Edward G., et al, *School and Community* New York Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954 (Revised ed.) One of the best treatments of principles and techniques to use in studying the community and using community resources

_____, (Ed and Compiler), *School and Community Programs* New York Prentice Hall Inc, 1949 A collection of articles describing actual instances in which resources of the community were utilized or school-community relationships were strengthened

Pitluga, George, E., *Science Excursions Into the Community* New York Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1943 Although written from the standpoint of health and science instruction, there are good examples included for use in planning social studies field trips

U S Office of Education, *How Children Use the Community for Learning*, Washington, D.C. Government Printing Office 1953 A pamphlet in which is given a practical account of ways children utilized the community to enrich learning Send 20¢ to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., to secure a copy

Wesley, Edgar B., and Mary Adams *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools* Boston D.C. Heath & Co, 1952 (Revised ed.) Chapter 22 contains a definition of the child's communities and a good list of resources and sources of community study

West, Ruth (Ed.), *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies*, Ninth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies. Cambridge The Council, 1938 A complete and practical treatment of the place of community resources in the social studies.



USING AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Audio-visual materials are used to develop concepts, improve attitudes, and extend appreciations and interests; they also provide concrete bases for group planning, critical thinking, and discussion by enabling the child to see and hear what is being studied in various units of work. Audio-visual materials stimulate learning, have a high degree of interest for children, and make for permanence of learning.¹ Children are interested in examining objects, seeing pictures and films, and hearing recordings related to such studies as Farm Life, Pioneer Life, and Latin America. The concepts and information learned through the use of such materials are remembered longer than when presented solely through verbal means, they are also learned faster and can be put to use immediately in related activities, thus saving time. The use of audio-visual materials enables the teacher to present concepts, processes, and information of faraway places and peoples in a concrete and meaningful manner. By reviewing or rehearing them as needs arise, children have opportunities to correct misconceptions, answer questions, and secure additional ideas. Audio-visual materials are also used to round out and extend firsthand experiences. Seeing a film on spinning and weaving greatly extends the child's concepts of processes that he may have seen in a demonstration, or experienced himself in classroom activities, processes can be slowed down or even stopped to allow careful study and analysis. Or seeing a film on The Dairy after a field trip to a local dairy helps to clarify concepts and to organize the child's thinking about the trip. Concepts and terms

¹ For a review of research see *Audio-Visual Materials of Instruction*, Forty-Eighth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1949, pp. 253-293

learned in using audio visual materials may be carried over and used in discussions, reading, and writing of reports Individual differences may be met giving all children opportunities to learn through seeing pictures and films handling objects and models and hearing records Finally, appreciation of the contributions of others and improved attitudes toward other groups may be developed as children learn about common needs and activities of mankind through the use of authentic and realistic audio visual materials

VARIETY OF AUDIO VISUAL MATERIALS

The listing of materials in the checklist below is indicative of the wide range of audio visual resources equipment and supplies available for use in the social studies The checklist is helpful in surveying the resources available in a particular school system It also can be used in planning a unit of work to answer such questions as Which resources can be used in the initiation? Which can be used in connection with specific questions and problems as the unit develops? Which can be used to summarize key ideas? Which can be used to review and emphasize key learnings? The checklist also can be used to evaluate one's own acquaintance with resources and equipment Each teacher should be competent in utilizing different resources and should understand their unique values or contributions to the improvement of social learning Specific attention is given to the use of the various types in the social studies in the following sections and chapters

CHECKLIST OF AUDIO-VISUAL RESOURCES

A *Realia and Representations of Realia*

<input type="checkbox"/> Models	<input type="checkbox"/> Collections	<input type="checkbox"/> Museums
<input type="checkbox"/> Objects	<input type="checkbox"/> Products	<input type="checkbox"/> Dioramas
<input type="checkbox"/> Specimens	<input type="checkbox"/> Miniatures	<input type="checkbox"/> Panoramas
<input type="checkbox"/> Samples	<input type="checkbox"/> Ornaments	<input type="checkbox"/> Mock ups
<input type="checkbox"/> Textiles	<input type="checkbox"/> Utensils	<input type="checkbox"/> Marionettes
<input type="checkbox"/> Costumes	<input type="checkbox"/> Weapons	<input type="checkbox"/> Puppets
<input type="checkbox"/> Instruments	<input type="checkbox"/> Facsimiles	<input type="checkbox"/> Dolls
<input type="checkbox"/> Others		

B *Pictures and Sound Combined*

<input type="checkbox"/> Motion pictures	<input type="checkbox"/> Television
--	-------------------------------------

Sound film strips

C. Pictures and Pictorial Representations

<input type="checkbox"/> Photographs	<input type="checkbox"/> Postcards	<input type="checkbox"/> Montages
<input type="checkbox"/> Pictures	<input type="checkbox"/> Prints	<input type="checkbox"/> Murals
<input type="checkbox"/> Drawings	<input type="checkbox"/> Etchings	<input type="checkbox"/> Film strips
<input type="checkbox"/> Sketches	<input type="checkbox"/> Albums	<input type="checkbox"/> Silent films
<input type="checkbox"/> Slides	<input type="checkbox"/> Scrapbooks	<input type="checkbox"/> Opaque projections
<input type="checkbox"/> Others		

D. Auditory Resources

<input type="checkbox"/> Radio	<input type="checkbox"/> Records	<input type="checkbox"/> Recordings
--------------------------------	----------------------------------	-------------------------------------

E. Symbolic and Graphic Representations

<input type="checkbox"/> Maps	<input type="checkbox"/> Cartoons	<input type="checkbox"/> Chalkboard
<input type="checkbox"/> Globes	<input type="checkbox"/> Posters	<input type="checkbox"/> Bulletin board
<input type="checkbox"/> Atlases	<input type="checkbox"/> Diagrams	<input type="checkbox"/> Flannel board
<input type="checkbox"/> Charts	<input type="checkbox"/> Graphs	<input type="checkbox"/> Timelines
<input type="checkbox"/> Others		

F. Projectors and Viewers

<input type="checkbox"/> Slide	<input type="checkbox"/> Motion picture
<input type="checkbox"/> Opaque	<input type="checkbox"/> Stereoscope
<input type="checkbox"/> Overhead	<input type="checkbox"/> Slide viewer

G. Players and Recorders

<input type="checkbox"/> Record
<input type="checkbox"/> Tape
<input type="checkbox"/> Wire

H. Supplies and Materials for Production

<input type="checkbox"/> Lettering devices	<input type="checkbox"/> Slide making	<input type="checkbox"/> Bookbinding
<input type="checkbox"/> Map outlines	<input type="checkbox"/> Chart making	<input type="checkbox"/> Map making
<input type="checkbox"/> Pantograph	<input type="checkbox"/> Picture mounting	<input type="checkbox"/> Model making
<input type="checkbox"/> Others		

REALIA

The term *realia* means *real things*. In this section it is used to refer to objects, models, specimens and items in museums, exhibits, dioramas, and panoramas. Specific materials used in the social studies that may be classified as realia include jewelry, ornaments, money, clothing, dolls authentically dressed, utensils, tools, dishes, tableware, products, manuscripts, documents, facsimiles, seals, letters, timepieces, communications devices, models of transportation equipment, musical instruments, art objects, sample foods, models of shelter, and weapons. In planning a unit of work, the teacher should attempt to secure as many realia as possible for use in building authentic impressions and

accurate concepts. This is not to suggest that a wide variety of devices or gadgets will be injected into a unit of study and used without careful planning. Realia, like all other materials are used as part of the sequence of experiences in the unit of work at times when they can make the greatest contribution to learning.

It is impossible for children to go back in time and space to early times and to the many other eras and places considered in the social studies. It is possible, however, for them to have experiences with real things, or replicas of them, related to the unit of work. By using realia children may identify themselves more closely with objects and persons they are studying in such units as Home and Family, The Farm, Pioneers, Indians, Mexico, China, or Aviation. For example, in a study of Colonial Living, one group made extensive use of candle molds, muskets, powder horns, cooking utensils, tableware, a spinning wheel, and clothing of the period. In a study of Mexico, another group ate tortillas, frijoles, pan, chile, and enchiladas. In addition they had access to sombreros, serapes, rebosos, huaraches, and models of furniture and utensils. In a study of Communication, one class used a simple radio crystal set, a telegraph key, drums hollow logs whistle, bone horn, bells, telephone, and flag signals. It should be emphasized, however, that each of the foregoing was used in accordance with carefully made plans and related to important concepts and understandings.²

In using realia and models, increased social learning is possible if they are used in line with the following principles:

- 1 Use realia to initiate a unit, to enrich concepts encountered in the unit, and to culminate experiences.
- 2 Allow children to handle them manipulate them and see how they work. If they are fragile, have their use demonstrated to the class.
- 3 Be alert to questions and comments made by children as they handle them, they may be vital clues to interest, needs, and misconceptions.
- 4 Encourage their use in dramatic play and in construction.
- 5 Relate their use to pictures, reading materials, motion pictures, and experiences children have had on trips.
- 6 Have children see them in a complete and realistic setting—museum, restoration, displays, exhibits, dioramas and panoramas.
- 7 Use them in connection with real problems that arise in the unit, not as gadgets.

² For a good discussion see Irene F. Cypher "Realia Make the Social Studies Real. *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies* (W. H. Hartley, Ed.) Eighteenth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C. National Education Association 1947, pp. 61-65.

Realia and models may be secured or seen in many different places. They are provided by audio visual departments in many city and county school systems, they should be available in all of them. In some elementary schools, they are available in the school museum or the materials center. At times it is possible to secure them from individuals in the community, this is especially true of Indian and Colonial realia and materials gathered on trips to various countries. Children themselves may collect and construct many different items.¹ Other sources that are frequently used by teachers include public museums, commercial and industrial organizations, and theatrical supply houses. Once individuals in a community have learned that the materials will be put to effective educational use, they are eager and willing to share them, and in many instances they will give them to the school.

EXHIBITS

Exhibits are used to display a variety of materials in the social studies.² In a study of Transportation by one group, models and pictures of boats, aircraft, trains, wagons, carts, and other items were arranged in a chronological sequence. The background used for the exhibit was a timeline with explanatory material and related pictures. In a study of China, another group made an exhibit of the processing of silk, starting with the cocoon and ending with a piece of cloth. In a study of Industrial America, another class made several exhibits showing the processing of iron, petroleum, and soybeans from raw material to finished product. Other examples of exhibits used successfully in the social studies are art in the community, growth of democratic institutions, basic documents in American democracy, changes in methods of transportation, story of printing, history of records, the development of communications, intergroup contributions, weapons and utensils from different cultural groups, flags of Latin America, and products of different countries and industries.

Exhibits should be viewed as an integral part of the experiences in a given unit of work. They should be planned and used when they will contribute most of the solution of questions and problems that have arisen in the class. In some instances they may be used at the

¹ F. G. Bowser and Lois C. Mossman, *Industrial Arts in Elementary Schools* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933).

² For a good discussion see Edgar Dale, *Audio Visual Methods in Teaching* (New York: The Dryden Press, 1934 (Rev. ed.) pp. 105-12).